# THE A&G. SHORTER LATIN GRAMMAR

Ranson. ig I wish you wouldn't write such stuff. IN MEMORIAM Frederick Slate Professor of Physics 110 A: 99 EX LIBRIS 760 where

# SHORTER LATIN GRAMMAR

FOR SCHOOLS AND ACADEMIES

Condensed and Revised

BY

JAMES BRADSTREET GREENOUGH

ASSISTED BY

ALBERT A. HOWARD



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### IN MEMORIAM

Professor of Physics

# PREFACE.

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THE present editors hold as the result of their experience, that a book designed to instruct in the principles of Latin construction, intended for the use of pupils and young teachers, ought to contain practically the whole grammar of the language. This is especially true of the teachers, because the book from which one teaches is very likely to limit one's own acquisitions. They are, however, aware that a more compendious book may be sufficient with some teachers, and under certain conditions even superior. They have, therefore, endeavored to abbreviate their complete work by omitting from it such portions as could not give appreciable information to the students in preparatory schools. This has been done by noting all the references in the books used in such schools, and saving these along with all the general principles under which they came. It is hoped that by this method nothing has been omitted which was essential, and nothing retained which might not at some time answer a question raised even among preparatory pupils. In order to facilitate the use of the two books side by side, and the later substitution of the larger work, the original notation of sections and subsections has been carefully retained.

In the treatment of the subject, with the exception of all general linguistic lore, the lines of the other work have been pursued. For such lore the student and teacher are referred to the larger grammar.

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But in regard to hidden quantities, a subject which has only lately begun to be studied, and whose uncertainties ought not to be allowed to trouble the beginner, the editors have pursued an even more conservative course than before, marking only such vowels long as could, in their opinion, be reasonably proved to be so, and leaving as presumably short all others, even those which many persons, and even the editors themselves, were inclined to think long.

CAMBRIDGE, September 1, 1896.

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# LATIN GRAMMAR.

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## INTRODUCTION.

#### ELEMENTARY DEFINITIONS.

1. The study of Grammar includes: (I) the Forms of Words (Etymology); (2) the Uses of Words, or the ways of connecting them in sentences (Syntax); (3) the Forms of Verse (Prosody).

#### PARTS OF SPEECH.

2. Words are Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs, Participles, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, or Interjections. These are called Parts of Speech.

Note. — There is no word in Latin for the Articles a, an, the.

- **3.** A **Noun** is the name of a person, place, or thing: as, *Cæsar*, *Rome*, *house*, *strength*, *glory*. Names of persons and places are Proper Nouns; the others are Common Nouns.
- **4.** An **Adjective** is a word which describes a noun: as, a *brave* man, a *green* tree.
- 5. A **Pronoun** is a word which denotes a person, place, or thing without naming or describing it. It may be —
- a. Personal: I, we (1st person); thou, ye, you (2d person); he, she, it, they (3d person).

NOTE. — There is in Latin no personal pronoun of the 3d person, but a demonstrative may be used instead; and the others are used only for emphasis, being commonly given in the verb-ending.

- b. Possessive: 'my, mine; 'thy, thine; his, her, hers; our, ours; your, yours; their, theirs; myself, himself, themselves, and the like.
- c. Reflexive: these end, in English, in -self or -selves, following a verb or preposition: as, I blame myself; he came to himself.
  - d. Demonstrative: this, these; that, those.
  - e. Relative: who, which; whoever, whatever.
  - f. Interrogative: who? which? what?

Note. - Possessives, demonstratives, relatives, and interrogatives all have the form of adjectives, and are called Adjective Pronouns.

The relatives whoever, whatever are called Indefinite Relatives.

- 6. A Verb is a word which asserts, asks, or commands: as, he speaks, do you know? come to me.
- 7. A Participle is an adjective which describes the act or condition asserted by a verb: as, speaking, chosen.
- 8. An Adverb is a word used with a verb or adjective to express time, place, or manner: as, now, here, nobly done.
- 9. A Preposition is a word connecting a noun in a dependent relation with other words in the same sentence: as, in, from, among, into, beyond.
- 10. A Conjunction is a word used to connect sentences or parts of sentences: such words are and, or, if, but.

Note. - Some words, - as, while, because, till, nevertheless, - used both to define and to connect, are called Adverbial Conjunctions.

11. Interjections are mere exclamations, and are not, strictly, Parts of Speech: as, ah! ho! alas!

#### THE SENTENCE.

12. A Sentence is a form of words containing an Assertion, a Question, an Exclamation, or a Command; and it is, accordingly, declaratory, interrogative, exclamatory, or imperative.

18. The Subject of a sentence denotes the person or thing spoken of: it may be (I) a Noun, a Pronoun, or a Phrase; or (2) it may be given in the ending of a Verb.

NOTE. — This latter case is regular in Latin: as, doce-o, I teach; doce-t, he (or she) teaches; doce-nt, they teach.

14. The **Predicate** is that which is spoken of the Subject. It may be a Verb; and it must contain a verb. Thus a whole Latin sentence may consist of a verb alone.

Note. — If the Predicate is a verb alone — as, "the sun *shines*" — this verb is called Neuter, or Intransitive; if the verb requires an Object — as, "I see the sun"—it is called Transitive. A noun or adjective used with a neuter verb to complete the statement — as, "these men are brave"—is called the Complement.

15. The **Object** of a verb denotes the person or thing affected by the action: as, I wrote *the letter*.

Note. — The Object may be direct or indirect: in the sentence, "I wrote you a letter," letter is the Direct object, and you the Indirect.

- 16. A Phrase is a group of words, without subject or predicate of its own, which may be used as an adjective or adverb: as, "a man of great virtue" (Adjective Phrase); "I will come within three days" (Adverbial Phrase).
- 17. A Clause is a group of words, with subject and predicate of its own, used to add something to a sentence, or to qualify its meaning: as, "I spoke and he listened"; "when he had heard, he went away."

Note. — A sentence so modified is called *compound*; if one part (as in the second example) depends on the other, it is called *complex*.

18. A noun, pronoun, adjective, or verb is said to AGREE with another word, when it is required to be in the same *gender*, *number*, *case*, or *person*. A verb or preposition is said to GOVERN a noun, when it requires a noun in connection to be in a particular Case.

# PART FIRST. - ETYMOLOGY.

#### 1. LETTERS AND SOUNDS.

#### ALPHABET.

The Latin alphabet is the same as the English (which, in fact, was borrowed from it), except that it has no w.

#### Classification of the Letters.

**1.** The letters are divided into Vowels (*litterae vōcālēs*) and Consonants (*litterae cōnsonantēs*). Two vowels united so as to express one sound are called a Diphthong.

The Vowels are a, e, i, o, u, y. The rest of the letters are Consonants. The Diphthongs are ae, au, ei, eu, oe, ui.

2. Consonants. — a. p, b, c (k), q, g, t, d, as also ch and th, are called Mutes (Explosives, Momentary sounds).

These are produced by an entire stoppage of the breath and a subsequent explosion. They are classified as follows:—

- I. p, c (k), q, t, s, are called Surds (tenuēs).
- These are without vocal tone.
- 2. b, g, d, z, are called Sonants (mediae).

These are accompanied by a slight vocal tone.

3. ch and th are called Aspirates.

In these a breath follows the explosion. They are found chiefly in words borrowed from the Greek. **ph**, which also was borrowed from the Greek, probably was never sounded as an aspirate in Latin.

b. m and n are called Nasals.

These are pronounced with the same position of the organs as b and d, except that the nasal passage is opened instead of closed. A third nasal, n adulterinum (like n in ink), corresponding in the same way to g, existed in the language, but had no separate sign.

3. From the organs of speech chiefly used in the utterance of the mutes and nasals they are divided into Labials (pronounced with the lips), Palatals (with the palate), and Linguals (with the tongue).

Their relations are seen in the following table: -

	SURD.	SONANT.	ASPIRATE.	NASAL.
Labial:	p	b	wanting	m
Palatal:	c (k), q	g	ch	n (as in $ink$ )
Lingual:	t	d	th	n (as in rent).

a. Other useful special classes of sounds are distinguished, as, —

Liquids: 1, m, n, r.

Fricatives (Spirants): f, ph, th (not aspirate, the same as in thin), h, s, z. Sibilants: s, z.

Double Consonants: x (cs), z (ds).

Semi-vowels: i, v (see § 4).

b. h is merely a breathing.

4. Semi-Vowels.—i and v (u) before a vowel in the same syllable are consonants and have the sound of English consonant y and w respectively. (Cf. i and u in pinion, unguent.) They are sometimes called Semi-Vowels.

Note. — The Latin alphabet had no separate signs for the semi-vowels; but used i for both vowel and consonant i, and v or u (without distinction) for both vowel and consonant v (u). The character j was unknown in classical times, and u was but a graphic variation of v. In mediæval Latin j and v came to be used to indicate the consonant sounds of i and v (u), and this usage is often followed by modern editors in writing small letters. In writing capitals, however, the forms J and U are avoided. Thus, iuuenis, iuvenis, or juvenis, — but IVVENIS.

In this book vowel and consonant i are both represented by the same character, i; but v is used for the consonant, u for the vowel sound of v (u). Thus, iūstus, vir, iuvenis.

5. The Romans distinguished Long vowels from Short in sound, but had no regular means to express the difference. This difference is called **Quantity**, and such vowels are said to be long or short by nature.

In modern times short vowels are marked thus:  $\mathbf{\ddot{a}}$ ,  $\mathbf{\ddot{e}}$ ; and long, thus:  $\mathbf{\ddot{a}}$ ,  $\mathbf{\ddot{e}}$ ; those that may be pronounced either long or short, thus:  $\mathbf{\ddot{a}}$ ,  $\mathbf{\ddot{e}}$ . In this book all simple vowels not marked are supposed to be short. But final  $\mathbf{o}$  and  $\mathbf{i}$  are marked according to their prevailing quantity in poetry, though they sometimes vary from this.

6. The character c (surd palatal) originally stood for the sonant palatal (g).

Hence, a, b, c, but Alpha, Beta, Gamma. This force it always retained in the abbreviations C. (for Gāius), and Cn. (Gnaeus).

7. Till after the age of Augustus the use of u (vowel) after u (v) was avoided. This was done either by preserving o, when but for this tendency it would have become u, as in voltus (but cultus), servos (but dominus); or in case of quu, by writing cu, as in ecus (for equos, later equus).

Hence, where in inflection quu would appear, it should be written and pronounced cu, as, ecus, equi, sequitur, secuntur.

#### Phonetic Variations.

- 8. Variations of sound are of two classes:
- a. Inherited differences of form in the same root (see § 22).
- b. Unconscious changes of sounds developed in course of time in the language itself.
- **9.** Inherited differences appear in variations of vowels, and less commonly in liquids connected with vowels.
- a. Vowels vary between long and short of the same kind: as, emō, I buy, ēmī, I bought; regō, I rule, rēgīna, a queen.
  - b. Vowels vary in quality: as, pendo, I weigh, pondus, weight.
- c. Vowels vary between a short vowel of one quality and a long vowel or diphthong of another: as, miser, wretched, maestus, sad.
- d. Liquids are transposed with vowels, sometimes with change of the vowel: as, sperno, I spurn, sprevi, I spurned.
- 10. Unconscious changes occur in both vowels and consonants.
- a. Vowels and diphthongs are weakened: as, factus, made, confectus, made up; agmen, a march, agminis, of a march.
- b. Two vowels coming together are very often contracted: as, cogo for co-ago; obit for obiit; nil for nihil.

- c. Vowels are often lost between two consonants (syncope): as, audācter for audāciter.
- d. Vowels are inserted between two consonants in the effort to pronounce a difficult combination of sounds (cf. sailors' hellum for helm): as, Herculēs for Herclēs, drachuma for drachma.
- 11. a. Consonants are substituted one for another. Thus: r for s between two vowels or before m or n: as, eram (root ES), generis (for †genesis, from genus), maereō (cf. maestus).
- b. Consonants are omitted: as, examen (exagmen), caementum (caed-mentum), autumnus (auctumnus, root AUG), pērgō (per-regō).

Especially h: as, debeo (de-habeo). And consonant i and v: as, conicio (con-iacio), prorsus (pro-vorsus).

- c. Consonants are unconsciously inserted in passing from one sound to another: as, sūmō, I take, sūmpsī, I took.
- d. Consonants and vowels are unconsciously changed (dissimilation) to avoid a repetition of the same sound in two successive syllables: parilia (for palilia, from Palēs), meridiēs (for medidiēs).
- e. A consonant is changed by the influence of a neighboring sound, —
- I. Into the same sound as the neighbor (complete assimilation): as, cēssī (cēd-sī), summus (sup-mus), sella (sed-la).
- 2. Into a sound of the same organ or the same quality (or both) as the neighbor (partial assimilation) (see table of mutes, § 3): as, conterō (com-terō, labial to lingual), scriptus (scrib-tus, sonant to surd), sēgmentum (†secmentum, surd to sonant), imperō (in-perō, lingual to labial).
- **12.** Variations of Spelling occur in manuscripts and inscriptions, and especially in modern editions. Most are provided for in Vocabularies.
- a. The letters and sounds of ci and ti are interchanged before a vowel: nuntio (nuncio), contio (concio), condicio (conditio).
- b. Several words are written sometimes with and sometimes without an initial h: as, harēna (arēna), erus (herus), umerus (humerus), umor (humor).
- c. In later Latin, **e**, ae, and oe became alike in sound (like a in fate), and are often confounded in writing: as, taenus (tenus, toenus).
- d. Other words variously spelled are: adulēscēns, adolēscēns; ahēneus, aēneus; ānulus, annulus.

#### Combinations.

- 13. Two words are often united in writing, and sometimes in sound. Thus, —
- a. Conjunctions or other particles and pronouns are sometimes connected: as in etenim, unusquisque, iamdudum, iamdiu, siquis, siquidem; also a few short phrases, as, quare, quamobrem, respublica, iusiurandum, paterfamilias, tecum.
- b. The verb est, is, is joined with the preceding word, especially in the old poets, when the two would be united by elision: as, homost, periculumst, qualist (qualis est) (like thou'rt, I've).
- c. Similar contractions are found in vin' (visne), scin' (scisne). sis (si vis), sodes (si audes), sultis (si vultis). So in English, don't, won't (wol not).

#### Syllables.

- 14. In Latin every word has as many syllables as it has vowels or diphthongs.
- a. In the division of words into syllables a single consonant or a mute followed by a liquid between two vowels must be written and pronounced with the latter.
- b. This rule is sometimes improperly extended to doubled consonants, or any combination of consonants which can be used to begin a word: as, ho-spes, mā-gnus; but usage varies.
- c. In compounds, the parts should be separated: as, ab-est, ob-lātus.

#### Kindred Forms.

15. In English words derived from the Latin, the original letters are retained (as *ambition* from **ambitio**). But in native English words which are cognate with the Latin, the original sounds are represented in the two languages by closely related letters which regularly correspond: as,—

LATIN.	ENGLISH.

- t TH: tū, thou; tres, three; tenuis, thin.
- d T: duo, two; dens, tooth; sedeo, sit.
- p F: pater, father; pullus, foal; pauci, few.

#### Sounds of the Letters.

Note. — The pronunciation of Latin is different in different countries. In America, it usually follows what may be called the *Roman* (or *Phonetic*) method.

16. By the Roman method, every letter has always the same sound.

Note. — A long vowel in our enunciation almost necessarily acquires a slightly different quality from a short one, as in *boot* and *foot*, *machine* and *holiest*. See also be below.

VOWELS:

ā as in father; a as in idea.

ē as eh? (prolonged); they;

ĕ as eh? (clipped).

i as in machine;

i as in holiest.

ā as in holy;

ŏ as in obey.
ŭ as oo in foot.

u as oo in boot;

u as

 $\mathbf{y}$  between u and i (German  $\ddot{u}$ ).

DIPHTHONGS:

ae like ay; oe like oy; au like ow in now.

ei as in eight; eu as eh'oo; ui as oo'ee.

c and g are always hard, as in come, get.

B is always sharp, as in sea, lips.

i cons. is like y in young; v (cons. u), like w in wing; qu as in English.

CONSONANTS, as in English, except that:

bs is like ps; ch like k; ph like f.

n before s or f was combined with the preceding vowel somewhat as French nasal n, making the vowel long.

z as dz in adze.

th as in rathole, later as in thin.

When two consonants come together (as in con-dō, pos-terī), or a consonant is doubled (as in an-nus, ūl-lus, mīt-tō), care should be taken to pronounce both letters distinctly.

17. Roman names in English (as *Julius Cæsar*), scientific terms, titles of books, and familiar quotations (as *e pluribus unum; viva voce; vice versa; veni, vidi, vici,* etc.) should be pronounced by the English method. In this the letters have the same sounds as in English.

#### Quantity and Accent.

- 18. The Accent in Latin depends on the Quantity (or length) of the last syllable but one. A long *vowel* makes a long *syllable*. A short *vowel* may make a long *syllable* if obstructed by consonants. The following are simple rules for quantity.
  - a. A vowel before another vowel or h is short: as in via, nihil.
- b. A diphthong is long: as in aedes, foedus. So, also, a vowel derived from a diphthong: as, excludo (ex-claudo).
  - c. A vowel formed by contraction is long: as, nil (nihil).
- d. A syllable in which a vowel is followed by two consonants (except a mute with 1 or r), or a double consonant (x, z) is long by Position; as in pingō, saxum, Mezentius. Before nf and ns, gn and gm, and i consonant the vowel itself becomes long by nature: as in inferō, praesēns, māgnus, āgmen, hūius.
- e. A syllable in which a short vowel is followed by a mute with 1 or r is common; i.e. it may be long in verse: as in alacris, multiplex.
- f. A vowel before nd, nt is regularly short by nature: as, amant, amandus from amare.
- 19. The accent in words of more than one syllable is on the last syllable but one (Penult), or the last but two (Antepenult).
- a. Words of two syllables are always accented on the first syllable: Rō'ma, ve'hō, i'pse.
- b. Words of more than two syllables are accented on the Penult, if that is long: as, amī'cus, praesen'tis; if it is short or common, on the Antepenult: as, do'mīnus, a'lācris, la'tēbrae, conti'nūō, praete'rītum, dissociā'bilis.

Note. — In words of more than four syllables a secondary accent usually arises at a convenient distance from the main accent: as, nāvigā"-tiō'nibus, pecū"liā'ria.

c. When an Enclitic is joined to a word, the accent falls on the syllable next before the enclitic, whether long or short: as, dea'que, amare've, tibi'ne, ita'que (and ... so), as distinguished from i'taque (therefore).

d. Exception: Certain apparent compounds of facio retain the accent of the simple verb: as, benefă'cit, calefă'cit (see § 169. a). (These are not true compounds, but phrases.)

#### 2. WORDS AND THEIR FORMS.

#### INFLECTION.

20. Latin is an inflected language: i.e. changes are made in the forms of words to show their grammatical relations.

Such changes sometimes take place in the body of a word, or at the beginning, but oftener in the termination: as, vox, a voice; vocis, of a voice; tangit, he touches; tetigit, he touched.

#### Root and Stem.

- 21. The Stem is the body of a word, of which the terminations are changed.
- 22. A Root is the shortest and simplest form that can express the main idea of a word. It is common also to other words either in the same or kindred languages.<sup>1</sup>

Thus the root of the stem reg- (in rex) is REG, which does not mean to rule, or I rule, or ruling, but merely expresses vaguely the idea of directing, and cannot be used as a part of speech without added terminations.

- 23. The Stem is sometimes the same as the root: as in duc-is, of a leader; ter-t, he bears; but it is more frequently formed from the root,—
- I. By changing or lengthening its vowel: as in scob-s, sawdust (SCAB, shave); reg-is, of a king (REG, direct); voc-is, of a voice (voc, call).
- 2. By the addition of a simple suffix (originally another root): as in fug-a, flight (FUG + a); fugi-s, you fly (FUG + yo); pangō, I fasten (PAG + no).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> For example, the root STA is found in the Greek ἴστημ, Latin sistere and stāre, German ftehen, and English stand.

- 3. By two or more of these methods: as in  $d\bar{u}c$ -it, he leads (DUC + o); tollo, I raise (TUL + yo).
- 4. By derivation and composition, following the laws of development peculiar to the language. (See §§ 158 ff.)
- 24. Inflectional terminations are variously modified by combination with the final vowel or consonant of the Stem, leading to the various forms of Declension and Conjugation (see § 32).

#### The Parts of Speech.

- 25. Words are divided into nine Parts of Speech: Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs, Participles, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections. These are more fully treated in the Introduction, pp. 1 and 2.
- **26.** Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, and Participles have inflections of *declension*, to show gender, number, and case. Verbs have inflections of *conjugation*, to show voice, mood, tense, number, and person.
- Note. Adjectives are often said to have inflections of *comparison* to indicate degree. These inflections are, however, properly stem-formations made by derivation (cf. \$ 89).
- 27. Parts of speech which are not inflected are called Particles: such are Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.

#### Gender.

- 28. The genders distinguished in Latin are three: Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter.
- a. The gender of Latin nouns is either natural or grammatical. Natural gender is distinction as to the sex of the object denoted: as, puer, boy; puella, girl; donum, gift.
- b. Grammatical gender is a formal distinction as to sex where no actual sex exists in the object. It shows itself only in the form of the adjective joined with the noun: as, lapis magnus (M.), a great stone; manus mea (F.), my hand.

Note. — A few neuter nouns are used to designate persons as belonging to a class: as, mancipium tuum, your slave.

Names of classes or bodies of persons may be of any gender: as, exercitus (M.), aciës (F.), and ägmen (N.), army; operae (F. pl.), workmen; copiae (F. pl.), troops.

- **29.** a. Names of Male beings, Rivers, Winds, Months, and Mountains, are *masculine*.
- b. Names of Female beings, Cities, Countries, Plants, Trees, and Gems, of many Animals (especially Birds), and of most abstract Qualities, are feminine.

To each of these there are some exceptions.

c. Indeclinable nouns, infinitives, words, terms or phrases used as nouns, or quoted merely for their form, are neuter: as,—

fas, right; nihil, nothing; gummī, gum; scīre tuum, your knowledge (to know).

- **30.** Many nouns may be either masculine or feminine, according to the sex of the object. These are said to be of Common Gender: as, exsul, exile; bos, ox or cow.
- a. If a noun signifying a thing without life may be either masculine or feminine, as, dies, day; finis, end, it is sometimes said to be of Doubtful Gender.
- b. Several names of animals have a grammatical gender, independent of sex. These are called Epicene. Thus lepus, hare, is always masculine, and vulpes, fox, is always feminine.

#### Number and Case.

- 31. Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives, and Participles have two Numbers, singular and plural; and six Cases, nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, vocative, ablative.
  - a. The Nominative is the case of the Subject of a sentence.
- b. The Genitive may generally be translated by the English Possessive, or by the Objective with the preposition of.
- c. The Dative is the case of the Indirect Object (§ 177). It may usually be translated by the Objective with the preposition to or for; but sometimes by the Objective without a preposition.
- d. The Accusative is the case of the Direct Object of a verb (Intr. § 15, § 177). It is used also with many Prepositions.
  - e. The Vocative is the case of Direct Address.
- f. The Ablative may usually be translated by the Objective with from, by, with, in, or at. It is also often used with prepositions.

- g. All the cases, except the nominative and vocative, may be used as object-cases; and are sometimes called Oblique Cases.
- h. In names of towns and a few other words appear traces of another case (the Locative), denoting the place where.

#### 3. DECLENSION OF NOUNS.

**32. Nouns** are inflected in five Declensions, distinguished by the case-ending of the Genitive Singular, and by the final letter (*characteristic*) of the Stem.

DECL.	I.	Gen. Sing.	ae	Characteristic	ă	(anciently a)
66	2.	44	ĭ	44	ŏ	
66	3.	44	ĭs	46	ĭ	or a Consonant
66	4.	46	ūs	(uis) "	ŭ	
66	۲.	44	ēï	16	ë	

- a. The Stem of a noun may be found, if a consonant-stem, by omitting the case-ending; if a vowel-stem, by substituting for the case-ending the characteristic vowel.
- b. The Nominative of most masculine and feminine nouns (except in the first declension) is formed from the stem by adding s. But many end in o, or in the liquids, 1, n, r.

# 33. The following are general Rules of Declension: -

- a. The Vocative is always the same as the Nominative, except in the singular of nouns in us of the second declension.
- b. In neuters the Nominative and Accusative are always alike, and in the plural end in ă.
- c. The Accusative singular of all masculines and feminines ends in m; the Accusative plural in s.
- d. In the last three declensions (and in a few cases in the others) the Dative singular ends in i.
  - e. The Dative and Ablative plural are always alike.
  - f. The Genitive plural always ends in um.
- g. Final i, o, u of inflection are always long; final a is short, except in the Ablative singular of the first declension; final e is long in the first and fifth declensions, short in the second and third.

34. The Case-endings of the several declensions are the following, rare forms being given in parenthesis, Greek forms in italics:-

DECL. I.	II.	III.	IV.	v.
Sing.				
N. ă, ē, ās, ēs,	us, um, er, os, on, eus	8 (or modified stem)	us, ū	ēs
G. ae (āī) ēs	ī (īus) õ, ū, ei	is, yos, ŏs	ūs (uis)	ēi (ē)
D. ae (ai)	ō (ī) ei, eō	ī (ĭ, rare)	$\mathbf{u}\overline{\mathbf{i}}$ $(\overline{\mathbf{u}})$	$\overline{\mathbf{e}}\overline{\mathbf{i}}\;(\overline{\mathbf{e}})$
A. am, $\bar{a}n$ , $\bar{e}n$	um, on, ea	em (im) in, yn, ă	um, ū	em
v. ă, ē, ā	ĕ (ī) er, eu	(as nom.) ĭ, y	us, ū	ēs
A. ā, ē	ō, eō	e (ī), ī, yē	ū	ē
Plur.				
N.V. ae	ī, ă	ēs, a, ia, čs	ūs, ua	ēs
G. ārum (ūm)	ōrum (ūm, ōm) ōn	um, ium, eōn	uum	ērum
D.A. is (abus)	īs (ōbus	ĭbus	ĭbus (ŭbus)	ēbus
A. ās	ōs	ēs (īs), a, ia, ăs	ūs, ua	ēs

#### FIRST DECLENSION.

35. The Stem of nouns of the First Declension ends in a (originally a), and except in Greek nouns the nominative is like the stem.

Nouns of the First Declension are thus declined:—

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

Nom.	stellă,	a (or	the)	star.
------	---------	-------	------	-------

stellae, stars.

. GEN. stellae, of a star.

stellarum, of stars.

DAT. stellae, to (or for) a star.

stellis, to (or for) stars.

Acc. stellam, a star.

stellas, stars.

V.oc. stella, thou star!

stellae, ye stars!

ABL. stella, with, from, etc., a star.

stellis, with, from, etc., stars.

GENDER. — Nouns of the first declension are Feminine.

EXCEPTIONS: Nouns masculine from their meaning: as, nauta, sailor. So a few family or personal names: as, Mūrēna, Scaevola.

- **36.** CASE-FORMS. -a. The Genitive singular anciently ended in -āi, which is occasionally found: as, aulāi.
- b. An old genitive in -as is preserved in the word familias, used in the combinations pater (mater, filius, filia) familias, father, etc., of a family (plur. patres familias or familiarum).

Nom. aula

- c. The Locative form (§ 31. h) for the singular ends in -ae; for the plural in -is: as, Romae, at Rome; Athens.
- d. The Genitive plural is sometimes found in -um instead of -um, especially in compounds with cola and gena: as, caelicolum, of the celestials; Troiugenum, of the sons of Troy; Aeneadum, of the sons of Eneas; so amphora and drachma.
- e. The Dative and Ablative plural of dea, goddess, filia, daughter, end in an older form -ābus.

#### Greek Nouns.

37. Many nouns of the first declension borrowed from the Greek are entirely Latinized, but many retain traces of their Greek forms in various degrees.

Electră (ā)

Anchisē (ā, ă)

Anchisē (ā)

ABL.

a court (F.). Electra (F.). a synopsis (F.). the art of music (F.).

epitome

mūsica (ē)

comêtă

comētā (ē)

2102121			~)	010200			,
GEN.	aulae	Electrae		epito	m <b>ēs</b> 1	mūsicae (ē	s)
DAT.	aulae	Electrae		epitor	mae 1	mūsic <b>ae</b>	
Acc.	aulam	Electram	(ān)	epito	m <b>ēn</b> i	mūsic <b>am</b> (	ēn)
Voc.	aula	Electra		-epitor	m <del>ē</del> l	nūsica (ē)	r
ABL.	aulā	Electrā		epitor	m <b>ë</b> i	mūsicā (ē)	
	Androma	iche (F.).	Eneas	(M.). I	Leonidas (M	.). a Persi	ian (M.).
Nom.	Androma			is		,	,
GEN.	Androma	chēs (ae)	/Aenēa	e	Leōnid <b>ae</b>	Persae	
	Androma		Aenēa		Leōnidae		
Acc.	Androma	chēn (am)	Aenēā	in (am)	Leonidam	Persen	(am)
Voc.	Androma	chē (a)	Acnea	(ă)	-Leonida (	A) Persa	
ABL.	Androma	chē (ā)	Aenēā	i	Leōnidā	Pers <b>ē</b>	(ā)
	Anchises	(M.).	son o	f Æned	ıs (M.).	comet	(M.).
Nom.	Anchises	,	Ae	neadēs	(ă)	cometes	s (a)
GEN.	Anchisae		, Ae	nead <b>ae</b>		comētae	
DAT.	Anchīsae	\	/ Ae	nead <b>ae</b>		comētae	
Acc.	Anchīsēn	(am)	Ae	nead <b>ën</b>		comēt <b>ē</b> n	(am)

a. Many Greek nouns vary between the first, the second, and the third declensions: as, Boōtae (gen. of Boōtēs, -is), Thūcydidās (acc. plur. of Thūcydidēs, -is). See § 43. a and § 63.

-Aeneadē (ă)

Aeneade (a)

b. Greek forms are found only in the singular; the plural is Gen, Bat are gr regular: as, comētae, -ārum, etc. wm, gen, Dech (

# SECOND DECLENSION.

38. The Stem of nouns of the Second Declension ends in ŏ (as of vir, virŏ-; servos (-us), servŏ-; dominus, dominŏ-). The nominative is formed from the stem by adding s in masculines and feminines, m in neuters, the o being weakened to u. But the ending -quo makes -cus (not quus).

In most nouns whose stem ends in ro- the s is not added, but o is lost, and e intrudes before r, if not already present (cf. chamber from Fr. chambre): as, ager, stem agro-, Greek ἀγρός.

Nouns of the Second Declension are thus declined: —

Sing.	slave (M.).	boy (M.).	field (M.).	man (M.).	war (N.).
STEM	` '	puero-	agro-	viro-	bello-
Nom.	servus (os)	puer	ager	vir	bellum
GEN.	servi	puerī	agrī	virī	belli
DAT.	servō	puer <b>ō</b>	agr <b>ō</b>	virō	bell <b>ō</b>
Acc.	servum (om)	puerum	agrum	virum	bellum
Voc.	serve	<del>puer</del>	ager	vir	bellum
ABL.	servō	puerō	agr <b>ō</b>	virō	bellō
Plur.					
Nom.	servi	pueri	agri	virī	bella
GEN.	serv <b>ōrum</b>	puer <b>ōrum</b>	agr <b>ōrum</b>	virorum	bellorum
DAT.	servis	pueris	agr <b>īs</b>	vir <b>īs</b>	bellis
Acc.	serv <b>ōs</b>	puer <b>ōs</b>	agr <b>ōs</b>	virōs	bella
Voc.	servi	pueri	agri	viri	-bella
ABL.	servīs	pueris	agrīs	virīs	bellis

Note. - Stems in -quo, like equo- have ecus (equos), equi, equo, ecum (equom), eque. The rest is regular.

- 39. GENDER. Nouns ending in us (os), er, ir, are Masculine; those ending in um (on) are Neuter.
- a. Names of towns in us (os) are Feminine: as, Corinthus. Also many names of plants and gems, and some others.

- b. The following in us are Neuter; their accusative is the same as the nominative: pelagus (nom. acc. plur. pelage), sea; vīrus, poison; vulgus (rarely m.), the crowd; so cētē, sea-monsters (nom. plur. without singular).
- 40. CASE-FORMS.—a. The Locative form of this declension ends for the singular in  $\bar{i}$ : as, humi, on the ground; Corinthi, at Corinth; for the plural, in  $\bar{i}s$ : as, Philippis, at Philippi.
- b. The genitive of nouns in ius or ium ends in a single i: as, fili, of a son; but the accent of the nominative is retained: as, ingĕni, of genius.¹ The same contraction occurs in the genitive singular and the dative and ablative plural of nouns in -āius and -ēius: as, Grāis, for the Greeks; Pompēi, of Pompey.
- c. Proper names in -ius lose e in the vocative, retaining the accent of the nominative: as, Vergi'li; also, filius, son; genius, divine guardian; as, audī, mī filī, hear, my son.
  - d. Greek names in -ius have the vocative -ie. Adjectives in -ius form the vocative in -ie, and some of these are occasionally used as nouns: as, Lacedaemonie, O Spartan!
  - e. The genitive plural often has  $\overline{u}m$  or (after v)  $\overline{o}m$  (cf. § 7) for  $\overline{o}$ rum, especially in the poets: as,  $de\overline{u}m$ , super $\overline{u}m$ ,  $div\overline{o}m$ , of the Gods, vir $\overline{u}m$ , of men. Also in compounds of vir, and in many words of money, measure, and weight: as,  $Se\overline{e}vir\overline{u}m$ , of the Seviri, numm $\overline{u}m$ , of coins,  $t\overline{u}ger\overline{u}m$ , of acres.
  - f. Deus, god, has vocative deus; plural: nominative and vocative dei or di (for dii); genitive deorum, deum; dative and ablative deis or dis (for diis). For the genitive plur. divum or divom (from divus, divine) is often used.
  - 41. The following stems in ero-, in which e belongs to the stem, retain the e throughout:—

adulter, adulterer; gener, son-in-law; puer, boy; socer, father-in-law; vesper, evening.

Also, compounds in fer and ger (stem fero-, gero-): as, lucifer, morning star; armiger, squire.

- a. Some of these have an old nominative in -erus: as, socerus. So vocative puere, a boy, as from puerus (regularly puer).
- <sup>1</sup> The genitive in ii occurs twice in Virgil, and constantly in Ovid, but was unknown to Cicero. The first i was probably retained in sound as y.

C. THIRD DECLENSION.

19

b. Vir, man, has gen. viri; the adjective satur, sated, has saturi; vesper, evening, has abl. vespere (loc. vesperi, in the evening).

c. Liber (a name of Bacchus) has gen. Liberi; so, too, the adjective liber, free, of which liberi, children, is the plural (§ 82. b).

42. The following not having e in the stem insert it in the nominative and vocative singular. (Cf. § 10. d.)

ager, field, st. agro-; coluber, snake; magister, master; aper, boar; conger, sea-eel; minister, servant; culter, knife; arbiter, judge; oleaster, wild-olive; auster, south wind; faber, smith; onager (-grus), wild-ass; fiber, beaver; scomber (-brus), mackerel. cancer, crab: liber, book; caper, goat;

[N.B. - For the corresponding forms of Adjectives, see § 82.]

43. Greek nouns retain many original forms and are declined as follows in the Singular, the Plural being regular:—

fable (M.). mock-sun(N.). Delos (F.). Athos (M.). Orpheus (M.).

Nom.	mythos	parelion	Delos	Athos (ō)	Orpheus
GEN.	mythi	parēli <b>ī</b>	Dēl <b>ī</b>	Athōs (ō) Athō (i)	Orphei (eos)
DAT.	mytho_	parēli <b>ō</b>	Dēl <b>ō</b>	Ath <b>ō</b>	Orphe <b>ī</b>
Acc.	mython	parēlion	Dēlon	(um) Athon (um)	Orphea
Voc.	mythe	parēlion	Dēle	Athōs	Orpheu
ABL.	mytho	parēli <b>ō</b>	Dēl <b>ō</b>	Athō	Orphe <b>ō</b>

a. Many names in -es belonging to the third declension have also a genitive in -i: as, Thucydides, Thucydidi (see §§ 37. b and 52).

b. Several names in -er have also a nom. in -us: as, Teucer or Teucrus. The name Panthus has the vocative Panthu (§ 63. i).

c. The genitive plural of certain titles of books takes the Greek termination -on: as, Georgicon, of the Georgics.

#### THIRD DECLENSION.

Nouns of the Third Declension are best classed according to their stems, as ending (1) in a Mute, (2) in a Liquid (1, n, r), (3) in a Vowel (i).

A few whose stems end in u, formerly long (grus, sus), are treated as consonant-stems.

adulter, gran vesting

#### 1. Mute-Stems.

44. Masculine and Feminine nouns, whose stem ends in a Mute, form the nominative by adding -s. If the mute is a *lingual* (t, d), it is suppressed before -s; if it is a palatal (c, g), it unites with -s, forming -x: as, —

op-is, Ops, help; custod-is, custos, guardian; reg-is, rex, king.1

Neuters have for the nominative the simple stem (for some modifications, see § 45):—

capit-is, caput, head; poemat-is, poema, poem.

45. The vowel before the final consonant of the stem is often modified: as.—

adip-is, adeps; particip-is, particeps; aucup-is, auceps; hospit-is, hospes; capit-is, caput; cord-is, cor; poēmat-is, poēma; apīc-is, apex; indīc-is, index; but, cornīc-is, cornīx.

46. Nouns of this class are declined as follows:

Sing.	help (F.).	king (M.).	guide (c.).	soldier (M.).	head (N.).
STE	м ор-	rēg-	duc-	milit-	capit-
Nom.	[ops]	rēx	dux	mīles	caput
GEN.	opis	rēg <b>is</b>	ducis	mīlit <b>is</b>	capitis
DAT.	opī	rēgī	ducī	mīli <b>tī</b>	capitī
Acc.	opem	rēg <b>em</b>	ducem	mīlit <b>em</b>	caput
Voc.	ops	rēx	dux	mīles	caput
ABL.	ope	rēge	duce	mīlite	capite
Plur.	wealth				
Nom.	opēs	rēg <b>ēs</b>	ducēs	mīlit <b>ēs</b>	capita
GEN.	opum	rēg <b>um</b>	ducum	mīlit <b>um</b>	capitum
DAT.	opibus	rēg <b>ibus</b>	ducibus	mīlit <b>ibus</b>	capit <b>ibus</b>
Acc.	opēs	rēg <b>ēs</b>	ducēs	mīlit <b>ēs</b>	capita
Voc.	opes	rēg <b>ēs</b>	ducēs	mīlit <b>ēs</b>	capita
ABL.	opibus	rēgibus	ducibus	mīlitibus	capitibus

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In these the genitive is given first to show the stem as it is shown in vocabularies.

# 47. In like manner are declined —

princeps, -ipis (c.), chief;	aries, -etis (M.), ram;
lapis, -idis (M.), stone;	iūdex, -icis (M.), judge;
custos, -odis (c.), guard;	cornix, -icis (F.), raven;
comes, -itis (c.), companion;	poēma, -atis (N.), poem (§ 47. b).

- a. Many apparent mute-stems, having the genitive plural in -ium, are for convenience classed with i-stems (§ 54).
- b. Greek neuters (as poēma), with nominative singular in -a, frequently end in the dative and ablative plural in -īs, and in the genitive plural rarely in -ōrum.
- c. A few apparent i-stems belong here: canis, or canes, gen. canis (stem orig. can-), dog (cf. § 54).

## 2. Liquid-Stems.

48. In nouns whose stem ends in a Liquid (1, n, r), the nominative is the same as the (modified) stem, as follows:—

As leon-is, leo, lion; legion-is, legion; virgin-is virgo, maiden; homin-is, homo, man; turbin-is, turbo, whirlpool; Apollin-is, Apollo; carn-is, caro, flesh (see § 61); Anion-is, Anio; cornicin-is, cornicen (M.), horn-blower; carmin-is, carmen (N.), song; patr-is, pater, father; oper-is (originally opesis), opus, work; ciner-is, cinis, ashes.

Note. — A few Masculine and Feminine stems have a nom. in -s as well as -r: as, honor-is, honos (or honor); arbor-is, arbos (or arbor), tree.

Stems in II-, rr- (N.) lose one of their liquids in the nominative: as, farr-is, far, grain; fell-is, fel, gall.

# 49. Nouns of this class are declined as follows: -

Sing.	consul (M.).	lion (M.).	maiden (F.).	name (N.).
STEM	consul-	leon-	virgin-	nomin-
Nom.	consul	leō	virgō	nōmen
GEN.	cōnsulis	leõnis	virginis	nõmin <b>is</b>
DAT.	consuli	leōni	virgin <b>ī</b>	nōmin <b>ī</b>
Acc.	cōnsulem	leõn <b>em</b> .	virginem	nömen
Voc.	consul	leō	virgō	nömen
ABL.	cōnsule	leön <b>e</b>	virgine	nōmine

That is, as appears from the nominative. No fast line can be drawn between mute-stems and i-stems, as they were confused in both ways.

Plur.				
Nom.	cōnsul <b>ēs</b>	leōn <b>ēs</b>	virginēs	nōmin <b>a</b>
GEN.	cōnsul <b>um</b>	leōn <b>um</b>	virginum	nōmin <b>um</b>
DAT.	cõnsul <b>ibus</b>	leõn <b>ibus</b>	virginibus	nōmin <b>ibus</b>
Acc.	cōnsul <b>ēs</b>	leōn <b>ēs</b>	virgin <b>ēs</b>	nōmina
Voc.	cōnsul <b>ēs</b>	leōn <b>ēs</b>	virginēs	nōmina
ABL.	cõnsulibus	leōnibus	virginibus	nōmin <b>ibus</b>
Sing.	body (N.).	race (N.).	ivory (N.).	plain (N.).
STEM	corpor-, origos-	gener-, origes-	ebor-	aequor-
Nom.	corpus	genus	ebur	aequor
GEN.	corpor <b>is</b>	generis	eboris	aequoris
DAT.	corpori	generi	eborī	aequori
Acc.	corpus	genus	ebur	aequor
Voc.	corpus	genus	ebur	aequor
ABL.	corpore	genere	ebor <b>e</b>	aequor <b>e</b>
Plur.				
Nom.	corpora	genera	ebora	aequora
GEN.	corporum	generum	eborum	aequorum
DAT.	corporibus	generibus	ebor <b>ibus</b>	aequoribus
Acc.	corpora	genera	ebora	aequora
Voc.	corpora	genera	ebora	aequora
ABL.	corporibus	generibus	ebori <b>bus</b>	aequoribus

# 50. In like manner are declined -

pater, patris (M.), father;	arbor (-os), -oris (F.), tree;
furfur, -uris (M.), bran;	honor (-os), -oris (M.), honor;
opus, -eris (N.), work;	pignus, -eris or -oris, pledge.

The following real or apparent liquid-stems have the genitive plural in -ium, and are for convenience classed with the i-stems: imber, linter, uter, venter; fur, glis, lar, mas, mus [†ren]; also vires (pl. from vis: see § 61).

#### 3. Vowel-Stems.

51. Vowel-stems of the Third Declension end in i- (as turris, stem turri-; mare, stem mari-). The nominative, except in neuters, is formed by adding -s to the stem.

- a. Thirty-five nouns change i and in the nominative, and many others vary between i and i: as, cives, or civis, citizen: canes or canis (treated as i-stem), dog.
- b. The nominative of a few stems in bri- and tri- does not add -s, but loses i, inserting e before r. These are imber, linter, uter, venter (§ 54, and cf. ager).
- c. The nominative of neuters is the same as the stem, with the change of i to e (as in mare). But when i is preceded by al or ar, the e is lost, as in animal (§ 53. c).

# 52. Nouns of this class are declined as follows: -

Sing.	thirst(1	F.). tower (F.).	cloud (F.).	seat (N.).	animal(N.).
STEM	siti-	turri-	nübi-	sedīli-	animāli-
Nom.	sitis	turris	nubes	sedile	animal
GEN.	sitis	turris	nūb <b>is</b> ,	sedīlis	animāl <b>is</b>
DAT.	sitī	turrī	nūb <b>j</b>	sedīl <b>ī</b>	animāl <b>i</b>
Acc.	sitim	turrem (im)	nüb <b>em</b>	sedīl <b>e</b>	animal
Voc.	sitis	turris	nūb <b>ēs</b>	sedīl <b>e</b>	animal
ABL.	sitī	turre (ī)	nūb <b>e</b>	sedīl <b>ī</b>	animāl <b>ī</b>
Plur.					
Nom.		turrēs	nūb <b>ēs</b>	sedīlia	animāl <b>ia</b>
GEN.		turrium	nüb <b>ium</b>	sedīlium	animāl <b>ium</b>
DAT.		turribus	nūb <b>ibus</b>	sedīlibus	animālibus
Acc.		turrīs (ēs)	nūb <b>is</b> (ēs)	sedīli <b>a</b>	animāl <b>ia</b>
Voc.		turres	nūb <b>ēs</b>	sedīl <b>ia</b>	animāl <b>ia</b>
ABL.		turribus	nūbi <b>bus</b>	sedīlibus	animāl <b>ibus</b>

# 53. Nouns of this class include -

- a. Nouns in -es or -is (mostly feminine) or e (neuter) having the same number of syllables in the nominative and genitive (parisyllabic).
  - b. Those in -er, except pater, mater, frater, accipiter.
- c. Neuters in -al, -ar (originally neuters of adjectives in ālis, -āris) which have lost a final -e.
- 54. Many nouns with apparently consonant-stems were originally i-stems or confused with them. These are—

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The i-declension was confused even to the Romans, nor was it stable at all periods of the language, early Latin having i-forms which later disappeared. Nouns tended to lose the i-forms, Adjectives, to gain them.

- 1. Monosyllables with stem apparently ending in two consonants: as, urbs, mons (gen. montis), nox (gen. noctis), arx; together with imber, linter, uter, venter (§ 51. b).
- 2. Stems in tāt- (as cīvitās, -ātis), or in d or t preceded by a consonant (including participles used as nouns); also the monosyllables dōs, [† faux], fūr, glīs, līs, mās, mūs, nix, [† rēn], strix, vīs, scrobs (cf. § 50).
- 3. Nouns denoting birth or abode, having stems in **āt-**, **īt-**, originally adjectives: as, **Arpīnās**, **-ātis** (§ 164. c), with **penātēs** and **optimātēs** (§ 76. 2).

They are thus declined: -

Sing.	city (F.).	night (F.).	age (F.).	mouse(M.).	shower(M.).
STEM	urbi-	nocti-	aetāti-	mūri-	imbri-
Nom.	urbs	nox	aetās	mūs	imber
GEN.	urbis	noctis	aetāt <b>is</b>	mūr <b>is</b>	imbris
DAT.	urbī	noctī	aetātī	mūr <b>i</b>	imbr <b>i</b>
Acc.	urbem	noctem	aetāt <b>em</b>	mūr <b>em</b>	imbrem
Voc.	urbs	nox	aetās	mūs ·	imber
ABL.	urb <b>e</b>	nocte	aetāt <b>e</b>	mūre	imbre (i)
Plur.					
Nom.	urbēs	noctēs	aetāt <b>ēs</b>	mūr <b>ēs</b>	imbrēs
GEN.	urbium	noctium	aetātum (ium)	mūr <b>ium</b>	imbrium
DAT.	urbibus	noctibus	aetātibus	mūr <b>ibus</b>	imbribus
Acc.	urbis (ēs)	noctīs (ēs)	aetātīs (ēs)	mūris (ēs)	imbrīs (ēs)
Voc.	urbēs	noctēs	aetāt <b>ēs</b>	mür <b>ēs</b>	imbrēs
ABL.	urbibus	noctibus	aetātibus	mūr <b>ibus</b>	imbri <b>bus</b>

NOTE. — The declension of these nouns in the singular is exactly like that of consonant-stems, and in the plural like that of vowel-stems.

- 55. Vowel-stems (real or confused) show the i of the stem in the following forms:—
- a. They almost all have the genitive plural in -ium, but some monosyllables lack it entirely. Exceptions are canis and iuvenis (originally consonant-stems), patrials in -ās, ātis and īs, ītis, and a few others occasionally for metrical reasons, or from confusion; as, Arpīnās, Arpīnātum; Samnītum; Clādēs, clādum.

<sup>1</sup> These, however, more commonly have the genitive plural in -um.

VOWEL-STEMS. Links 2

- b. All neuters have the nominative and accusative plural in -ia.
- c. The accusative plural (M. or F.) is regularly -is.

\$\$ 56, 57.7

- d. The accusative singular (M. or F.) of a few ends in -im (§ 56).
- e. The ablative singular of all neuters, and of many masculines and feminines, ends in -i (see § 57).
- 56. The regular case-ending of the accusative singular of i-stems (M. or F.) would be -im: as, sitis, sitim (cf. stella, -am; servos, -om); but in most nouns this is changed to -em (following the consonant declension).
  - a. The accusative in -im is found exclusively
    - I. In Greek nouns and names of rivers.
    - 2. In būris, cucumis, rāvis, sitis, tussis, vīs.
    - In adverbs in -tim (being accusatives of nouns in -tis), as partim; and in amussim.
- b. The accusative in -im is found sometimes in febris, puppis, restis, turris, securis, sementis, and rarely in many other words.
- 57. The regular ablative singular of i-stems would end in -ī: as, sitī; but in most nouns this is changed to -e.
  - a. The ablative in -i is found exclusively -
    - 1. In nouns having the accusative in -im (§ 56); also, securis.
    - In aequālis, annālis, aquālis, consulāris, gentīlis, molāris, primipilāris, tribūlis used as nouns.
    - In neuters (whose nominative ends in -e, -al, -ar): except baccar, iubar, and sometimes (in verse) mare, rēte.
  - b. The ablative in -i is found sometimes -
    - In avis, clāvis, febris, finis, īgnis,<sup>1</sup> imber, nāvis, ovis, pelvis, puppis, sēmentis, strigilis, turris.
    - In affinis, bipennis, canālis, familiāris, nātālis, rīvālis, sapiēns, tridēns, trirēmis, vocālis used as nouns.
- c. The ablative of fames is always fame. The defective mane has sometimes locative mani used as ablative.
- d. Most names of towns in -e, as Praeneste, Tergeste, and Soracte, a mountain, have the ablative in -e. Caere has Caerete.
  - e. For canis, see § 47. c.

<sup>1</sup> Always in the formula aquā et īgnī interdīcī (§ 243. a).

- 58. The regular Nominative plural of i-stems would end in -is, but this is very rarely found in nouns. The regular Accusative in -is is common, but not exclusively used in any word.
- 59. The following have -um (not -ium) in the genitive plural: canis, iuvenis (originally consonant-stems); ambāgēs, mare (once only, otherwise wanting), volucris; also (sometimes) apis, caedēs, clādēs, mēnsis, sēdēs, struēs, subolēs, vātēs, and patrials in -ās, -ātis; -īs, -ītis; as, Arpīnās, Arpīnātum; Samnītum.

### 4. Irregular Nouns.

- **60.** In many nouns the stem is irregularly modified in the nominative or other cases. Thus,—
- a. The vowel-stems grū-, sū- add s in the nominative, and are inflected like mute-stems: grūs has also a nominative gruis; sūs has both suibus and subus in the dative and ablative plural.
- b. In the stem bov- (bou-) the diphthong ou becomes  $\overline{o}$  in the nominative (bos, bovis). In nav- (nau-) an i is added (navis, -is). In lov- (=  $Z_{\epsilon \hat{v}s}$ ) the diphthong (ou) becomes  $\overline{u}$  in  $I\overline{u}$ -piter (for -pater), gen. Iovis, etc.
- c. In iter, itineris (N.), iecur, iecinoris (N.), supellex, supellectilis (F.), the nominative is formed from a shorter stem, in senex, senis from a longer; so that these words show a mixture of two distinct forms. The shorter form is found in the genitive iecor-is.
- d. Of the many original s-stems, only vās, vāsis (N.) (pl. vāsa, -ōrum), retains its proper form in the nominative.
  - 61. Some peculiar forms are thus declined:

Sing. ox,cow(C.).oldman(M.)flesh(F.). bone(N.). force(F.). swine(C.). N., V. bos carō vis süs senex OS GEN. hovis senis carnis ossis vis (rare) suis vī (rare) DAT. bovi seni carni ossi suï Acc. vim bovem senem carnem os suem ABL. bove vî sene carne osse sue Plur. cattle strength N., A., V. boves vires senes carnes ossa sues GEN. boum senum carnium ossium vīrium summ D., ABL. bobus senibus carnibus ossibus vīribus sŭbus (būbus) (suibus)

### 5. Case-Forms.

62. The LOCATIVE form ends in the singular in -i or -e: as, rūrī, in the country; Carthāginī or Carthāgine, at Carthage; in the plural in -ibus: as, Trallibus, at Tralles.

### 6. Greek Forms.

- **63.** Many nouns originally Greek mostly proper names retain Greek forms of inflection.
- a. Stems in in- (i long): delphinus, -ī (M.), has also the form delphin, -īnis; Salamis, -īnis (F.), has acc. Salamina.
- b. Most stems in id-(nom. -is) often have also the forms of i-stems: as, tigris, -idis (-idos) or -is; acc. -idem (-ida) or -im (-in); abl. -ide or -i. But many, including most feminine proper names, have acc. -idem (-ida), abl. -ide, not -im or -i. (These stems are irregular also in Greek.)
- c. Stems in on-sometimes retain -n in the nominative : as, Agamemnon (or Agamemno), -onis, accusative -ona.
- d. Stems in ont- form the nom. in -on: as, horizon, Xenophon; but a few are occasionally Latinized into on- (nom. -o): as, Draco, -onis.
- c. Stems in ant-, ent- have the nom. in -ās, -īs: as adamās, -antis; Simoīs, -entis. So a few in unt- (contracted from oent-) have -us: as, Trapezus, -untis. Occasionally the Latin form of nominative is also found: as, Atlāns, elephāns, as well as Atlās, elephās.
- f. Many Greek nouns have gen. -ŏs, acc. -ä; plur. nom. -ĕs, acc. -äs: as, āēr, aethēr, crātēr, hērōs (-ōis), lampas (-ădis or -ădos), lynx (-cis or -cŏs), nāïs (-idos), Orpheus (-eos: see § 43).
- g. A few in -ys have acc. -yn, voc. -y, abl. -yë: as, chelys, -yn, -y; Capys, -yos, -yī, -yn, -y, -yë.
- h. Several feminine names in -ō have gen. sing. -ūs, all the other cases ending in -ō; they may also have regular forms: as, Dīdō, gen. Dīdōnis or Dīdūs; dat. Dīdōnī or Dīdō, etc.
- i. Several Greek forms are irregularly retained in the vocative: as, Panthūs, voc. Panthū; Orpheus, Orpheu; Atlās, Atlā; Daphnis, Daphni; Periclēs, Periclē (cf. § 43).
- **64.** Some of these forms are seen in the following examples:—



Sing. hero(M.).	torch(F.).	base(F.). naiad(F.).		tiger(C.).
Stem hero-	lampad-	basi-	naid-	tigrid-(tigri-)
N., V. hēros	lampas	basis	nãis	tigris
GEN. hērōis	lampados	base <b>ōs</b>	nāidos	tigris (idos)
DAT. hērōī	lampadī	basī	nāid <b>ī</b>	tigr <b>ī</b>
Acc. hērōa	lampada	basin	nāida	tigrin (ida)
ABL. hērōe	lampade	basī	nāide	tigrī (ide)
Plur.				
N., V. hērōĕs	lampad <b>ĕs</b>	bas <b>ēs</b>	nāid <b>ĕs</b>	tigr <b>ēs</b>
GEN. hērōum	lampadum	basium (eon	n) nāidum	tigrium
D., A.1hērōibus	lampadibus	basibus	nāid <b>ibus</b>	tigribus
Acc. hērō <b>ăs</b>	lampadăs	basis (eis)	nāid <b>ăs</b>	tigr <b>is</b> (id <b>ăs</b> )

### PROPER NAMES.

Nom.	Atlās	Didō	Simois	Capys	Daphnis
GEN.	Atlantis /	Dīdonis (us) /	Simoentis	Саруов	Daphnidis
DAT.	Atlanti	Dīdōnī (ō) √	Simoenti /	Capyi 4/	Daphnid <b>ī</b>
Acc.	Atlanta	Dīdōnem (ō)	Simoenta	Capyn	Daphnim (in)
Voc.	Atlās (ā)	Dīdō	Simoīs	Сару	Daphnĭ
ABL.	Atlante	Dīdōne (ō)	Simoente	Саруе	Daphni

NOTE. — The regular Latin forms can be used for most of the above.

### 7. Rules of Gender.

- 65. The following are general Rules for the Gender of nouns of the third declension, classed according to the termination of the nominative.
  - a. Masculine endings are -o, -or, -os, -er, -es (gen. -idis, -itis).
- b. Feminine endings are -ās (gen. ātis), -ēs (gen. -is), -is, -ys, -x, -s (following a consonant); also, -dō, -gō (gen. -inis), -iō (abstract and collective), and -ūs (gen. ūdis, -ūtis).
- c. Neuter endings are -a, -e, -ī, -y; -c, -l, -t; -men (gen. -mīnis); -ar, -ur, -ūs (gen. -eris, -oris).

NOTE. - All these have exceptions.

66. For general Rules for the Gender of nouns of the third declension, classed according to their stems, see Allen and Greenough's larger grammar.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Dative, hērōisin (once only).

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67. For the Forms of Inflection of nouns of the third declension, classed according to their stems, see Allen and Greenough's larger grammar.

### FOURTH DECLENSION.

68. The Stem of nouns of the Fourth Declension ends in  $\mathbf{u}$  weakened to  $\mathbf{i}$ , before -bus. Masculine and feminine nouns form the nominative by adding -s; neuters have for nominative the simple stem, but with  $\mathbf{\bar{u}}$  (long).

Nouns of the Fourth Declension are thus declined: -

Sing.	hand (F.).	lake (M.).	knee (N.).
	STEM manu-	lacu-	genu-
Non.	manus	lacus	$\operatorname{gen}\overline{\operatorname{u}}$
GEN.	man <del>us</del> .	lacus	genū (ūs)
DAT.	manui (u)	lacui (u)	genū
Acc.	manum	lacum	genū
Voc.	. manus	lacus	genū
ABL.	man <b>ū</b>	lacū	gen <b>ū</b>
Plur.			
Nom.	man <b>ūs</b>	lac <del>us</del>	genua
GEN.	man <b>uum</b>	lacuum	genuum
DAT.	manibus	lacubus	gen <b>ibus</b>
Acc.	man <b>ūs</b>	lac <b>ūs</b>	genua
Voc.	man <del>us</del>	lacus	. genua
ABL.	manibus	lacubus	genibus

- 69. GENDER. a. Most nouns in -us are Masculine. The following are Feminine: acus, anus, colus, domus, idūs (pl.), manus, nurus, porticus, quinquātrūs (pl.), socrus, tribus, with a few names of plants and trees. Also, rarely, arcus, penus, specus.
  - b. The only neuters are cornū, genū, pecū, verū.
- **70.** CASE-FORMS. a. The uncontracted form -uis (sometimes -uos) is sometimes found in the genitive, as senātuos; and an old (irregular) genitive in -ī is used by some writers: as, ornātī, senātī.
  - b. The nominative plural has rarely the form -uus.
  - c. The genitive plural is sometimes contracted into -um.



d. The following retain the regular dative and ablative plural in -ubus: artus, partus, portus, tribus, veru (but sometimes portibus, veribus); also dissyllables in -cus: as, lacus.

e. Most names of plants, and colus, distaff, have also forms of the second declension.

f. Domus, house, has two stems, ending in u- and o- (cf. gen. in -i, § 70. a), and is declined as follows: 1—

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
N., V.	domus	$dom\overline{u}s$
GEN.	domūs (domī, loc.)	domuum (domorum)
DAT.	domui (domō)	domibus
Acc.	domum	domos (domus)
ABL.	domo (domu)	domibus

g. The only locative form of the fourth declension is domui. But even this is rare, and domi is almost universally used instead.

71. Most nouns of the fourth declension are formed from verbstems, or roots, by means of the suffix -tus (-sus) (cf. § 163. b): as, cantus, song, CAN, cano, sing.

a. The accusative and ablative (or dative, perhaps both) of these nouns form the Supines of verbs (§ 109. c): as, audītum, vīsū.

b. Of many verbal derivatives only the ablative is used as a noun: as, tūssū (meō), by (my) command; so iniūssū, without orders. Of some only the dative: as, memorātuī, dīvīsuī.

### FIFTH DECLENSION.

72. The Stem of nouns of the Fifth Declension ends in 5. The nominative is formed from it by adding -s.

These nouns are thus declined: -

SING.	thing (F.) PLUR.	SING. day (1	faith (F.).	
S	TEM TE-	die-		fide-
Nom. res	rēs	dies	dies	fides
GEN. rĕi	rērum	diēi (diē)	diērum	fid <b>ĕī</b>
DAT. rĕī	rēbus	diēi (diē)	diēbus	fid <b>ĕī</b>
Acc. rem	rēs	diem	diēs	fidem
Voc. · res	rēs	di <b>ēs</b>	diēs	fidēs
ABL. re	rēbus	di <b>ë</b> .	diēbus	fidē

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The forms in parenthesis, except domi (cf. § 70. g), are less common.

NOTE. — The ē has been shortened in the genitive and dative singular of fidēs, spēs, rēs, but in these it is found long in early Latin.

- 73. GENDER. All nouns of this declension are feminine, except dies (usually M.), day, and meridies (M.), noon. Dies is sometimes feminine in the singular, regularly so when used of time in general: as, longa dies, a long time; constituta die, on a set day; also in the poets: as, pulchra dies, a fine day.
- 74. CASE-FORMS.—a. The Genitive singular anciently ended in -es (cf. -as of first declension, § 36. b). The genitive ending -ei was sometimes contracted into -ei, -i, or -e : as, dii (Æn. i. 636), and the phrases plebi-scitum, tribunus plebei.

b. The fifth declension is only a variety of the first, and several nouns have forms of both: as, māteria, -iēs; saevitia, -iēs.

c. The Locative of this declension ends in -ē. It is found in certain adverbs and expressions of time: as, hodiē (for hoi-diē, cf. huic), to-day; perendiē, day after to-morrow; diē quārtō (old, quārtī), the fourth day; prīdiē, the day before.

d. Of nouns of the fifth declension, dies and res only are declined throughout. Most want the plural, which is found, however, in the nominative and accusative in the following: acies, effigies, eluvies,

facies, glacies, series, species, spes.

#### DEFECTIVE NOUNS.

- 75. Some nouns are ordinarily found in the Singular number only (sīngulāria tantum). These are—
  - I. Most proper names: as Caesar, Cæsar, Gallia, Gaul.
- Names of things not counted, but reckoned in mass: as, aurum, gold; āēr, air; trīticum, wheat.
- 3. Abstract nouns: as, ambitio, ambition; fortitudo, courage; calor, heat.

But many of these are used in the plural in some other sense. Thus,—

a. A proper name may be applied to two or more persons or places, or even things, and so become strictly common: as, duodecim Caesarēs, the twelve Caesars; Galliae, the two Gauls (Cis- and Transalpine); Castorēs, Castor and Pollux; Iovēs, images of Jupiter.

- b. Particular objects may be denoted: as, aera, bronze utensils, nivēs, snowflakes; or different kinds of a thing: as, āeres, airs (good and bad).
- c. The plural of abstract nouns denotes instances of the quality, or the like: as, quaedam excellentiae, some cases of superiority; calores, trigora, times of heat and cold. (See also § 79. d.)
- 76. Some nouns are commonly found only in the Plural (plūrālia tantum [cf. § 79. c]). Such are—
- 1. Many proper names: as, Athenae, Athens, Thūrii, Philippi, Vēii, names of towns, especially names of festivals and games: as, Olympia, the Olympic Games; Bacchānālia, feast of Bacchus; lūdi Romāni, the Roman Games.
- 2. Names of classes: as, optimătes, the upper classes; māiores, ancestors; līberī, children; penātes, household gods.
- 3. Words plural by signification: as, arma, weapons; artus, joints; divitiae, riches; scalae, stairs; valvae, folding-doors.

These often have a corresponding singular in some form or other, as noun or adjective.

- a. As noun, to denote a single object: as, Bacchānal, a spot sacred to Bacchus; optimās, an aristocrat.
  - b. As adjective: as, Cato Maior, Cato the Elder.
  - c. In another sense: as, scala, a ladder; artus, a joint.
- 77. Many nouns are defective in case forms. For lists, see Allen and Greenough's larger grammar.

### VARIABLE NOUNS.

- 78. Many nouns vary either in Declension or Gender. For lists, see Allen and Greenough's larger grammar. The dictionary gives sufficient information in each case.
- 79. Many nouns have irregularities of Number either in their ordinary or occasional use.

a. Many nouns vary in meaning in the Singular and Plural: as,—

aedes, -is (F.), temple; aedes, -ium, house. aqua (F.), water; aquae, a watering-place. auxilia, auxiliaries. auxilium (N.), help; bonum (N.), a good; bona, property. carceres, barriers (of race-course). carcer (N.), dungeon; castrum (N.), fort; castra, camp. comitium (N.), place of assembly; comitia, an election (town meeting). copia (F.), plenty; copiae, troops. fides (F.), harp string; fides, lyre. finis (M.), end; fines, bounds, territories. grātia (F.), favor (rarely, thanks); grātiae, thanks (also, the Graces). impedimenta, baggage. impedimentum (N.), hindrance; littera (F.), letter (of alphabet); litterae, epistle. locus (M.), place [pl. loca (N.)]; loci, topics. lūdus (M.), sport; lūdi, public games. operae, day-laborers ("hands"). opera (F.), work; [ops] opis (F.), help (§ 46); opes, resources, wealth. pars (F.), a part; partes, part (on the stage), party. rostrum (N.), beak of a ship; rostra, speaker's platform. sal (M. or N.), salt; sales, witticisms.

- b. The singular of a noun usually denoting an individual is sometimes used collectively to denote a group: as, Poenus, the Carthaginians; miles, the soldiery; eques, the cavalry.
- c. Of many nouns the plural is usually, but not exclusively, used: as, cervices, the neck; Quirites, Romans; viscera, flesh.
- d. The poets often use the plural for the singular for metrical reasons, or from a mere fashion: as, ora (for os), the face; scoptra (for scoptrum), sceptre; silentia (for silentium), silence.

### PROPER NAMES.

- 80. A Roman had regularly three names, denoting the person, the gens, and the family.
- a. Thus, in the name Mārcus Tullius Cicero, we have Mārcus the praenomen, or personal name; Tullius, the nomen (properly an

adjective), i.e. the name of the gens, or house, whose supposed original head was a Tullus; Cicero, the cognomen, or family name.

NOTE. — When two persons of the same family are mentioned together, the cognomen is usually in the plural: as Pūblius et Servius Sullae.

- b. A fourth or fifth name was sometimes given. Thus the complete name of Scipio the Younger was Pūblius Cornēlius Scipio Āfricānus Aemiliānus: Āfricānus, from his exploits in Africa; Aemiliānus, as adopted from the Æmilian gens.
- c. Women had commonly in classical times no personal names, but were known only by the nomen of their gens. Thus, the wife of Cicero was **Terentia**, and his daughter **Tullia**. A younger daughter would have been called **Tullia secunda** or minor, and so on.

d. The commonest prænomens are thus abbreviated: -

A. Aulus.	L. Lucius.	Q. Quintus.
App. Appius.	M. Mārcus.	Ser. Servius.
C. (G.) Gāius (Caius) (cf. § 6).	M'. Mānius.	Sex. Sextus.
Cn. (Gn.) Gnaeus (Cneius).	Mam. Māmercus.	Sp. Spurius.
D. Decimus.	N. Numerius.	T. Titus.
K. Kaesō (Caeso).	P. Publius.	Ti. Tiberius.

# 4. ADJECTIVES.

#### INFLECTION.

Adjectives and Participles are formed and declined like Nouns, differing only in their use. They distinguish gender by different forms in the same word, and agree with their nouns in *gender*, *number*, and *case*. They are (I) of the First and Second Declensions, or (2) of the Third Declension.

### z. First and Second Declensions.

81. Adjectives of the first and second declensions (a- and o-stems) are declined in the Masculine like servus, in the Feminine like stella, and in the Neuter like bellum; as,—

bonus, g	00	d.
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		SINGULAR.		100	PLURAL.	
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
STEM	bono-	bona-	bono-	•		
Nom.	bonus	bonă	bonum	bonī	bonae	bona
GEN.	boni	bonae	bonī	bon <b>ōrum</b>	bon <b>ārum</b>	bon <b>ōrum</b>
DAT.	bonō	bonae	bonō	bonis	bonis	bonis
Acc.	bonum	bonam	bonum	bonos	bonās	bona
Voc.	bone	bona	bonum	bonī	bonae	bona
ABL.	bon <b>ō</b>	bonā	bon <b>ō</b>	bonīs	bonis	bonīs

Note. — Stems in quo- have nominative -cus, -qua, -cum, accusative -cum, -quam, -cum, to avoid -quu, (see § 7). Thus, —

Nom. relicus (-quos) reliqua relicum (-quom)
GEN. reliqui reliquae reliqui, etc.

- a. The masculine genitive singular of Adjectives in -ius ends in -ii, and the vocative in -ie; not in -i, as in Nouns (cf. § 40. b, c): as, Lacedaemonius, -ii, -ie.
- 82. Stems ending in ro- preceded by e or a consonant (also satur) form the masculine nominative-like noun-stems in ro- of the second declension (cf. puer, ager, § 38). They are thus declined:—

Sing. miser, wretched.				n	iger, black	
	STE	м misero-, а-,	0-	nigro-, a-, o-		
N.	miser	misera	miserum	niger	nigra	nigrum
G.	miserī	miserae	miserī	nigrī	nigrae	nigrī
D.	miser <b>ō</b>	miserae	miserō	nigr <b>ō</b>	nigrae	nigr <b>ō</b>
Ac.	miserum	miseram	miserum	nigrum	nigram	nigrum
V.	miser	misera	miserum	niger	nigra	nigrum
Ab.	miserō	miserā	miser <b>ō</b>	nigrō	nigrā	nigrō
Plu	r.					
N.	miserī	miserae	misera	nigri	nigrae	nigra
G.	miser <b>ōrum</b>	miserārum	miser <b>ōrum</b>	nigr <b>ōrum</b>	nigr <b>ārum</b>	nigr <b>ōrum</b>
D.	miser <b>īs</b>	miser <b>is</b>	miser <b>īs</b>	nigrīs	nigrīs	nigr <b>īs</b>
Ac.	miser <b>ōs</b>	miser <b>ās</b>	misera	nigr <b>ōs</b>	nigr <b>ās</b>	nigra
V.	miser <b>i</b>	miserae	misera	nigr <b>ī</b>	nigrae	nigra
Ab.	miseris	miser <b>īs</b>	miseris	nigr <b>īs</b>	nigrīs	nigr <b>īs</b>
						-

NOTE. — Which type is followed is shown by the dictionary.

a. Stems in ēro- (as prōcērus), with mōrigĕrus, propĕrus, have the regular nominative masculine in -us.

83. The following o-stems with their compounds have the genitive singular in -ius (one only having -ius) and the dative in -i in all genders:—

alius (N. aliud), other. totus, whole. alter, -terius, the other.

nullus, no, none. ullus, any. neuter, -trius, neither.

solus, alone. unus, one. uter, -trius, which (of two).

Of these the singular is thus declined :-

	м.	F.	N.	м.	F.	N.
Nom.	ūnus	ūna	ūnum	uter	utra	utrum
GEN.	ūn <b>īus</b>	ūn <b>īus</b>	ūn <b>īus</b>	utr <b>ius</b>	utr <b>īus</b>	utrīus
DAT.	ūnī	ūnī	ūn <b>ī</b>	utrī	utrī	utrī
Acc.	ũn <b>um</b>	ūnam	ūn <b>um</b>	utr <b>um</b>	utram	utrum
ABL.	ūn <b>ō</b>	ũn <b>ä</b>	ūn <b>ō</b>	utrō	utrā	utrō
Nom.	alius	alia	aliud	alter	altera	alterum
GEN.	alīus	alīus	alīus	alterius	alterius	alterius
DAT.	aliī	aliī	alii	alteri	alteri	alterī
Acc.	alium	aliam	aliud	alterum	alteram	alterum
ABL.	aliō	aliā	aliō	alterō	alterā	alterō

- a. The plural of these words is regular, like that of bonus.
- b. The i of the genitive-ending -ius, may be short in verse.

Instead of alius, alterius is commonly used, or in the possessive sense the adjective aliënus, belonging to another, another's.

In compounds sometimes both parts are declined, sometimes only the latter. Thus, alteri utri or alterutri, to one of the two.

#### 2. Third Declension.

Adjectives of the third declension are of one, two, or three terminations.

84. Adjectives of the third declension having stems in i-— distinguished by being parisyllabic (§ 53. a)—have but one form for both masculine and feminine, with one for the neuter, and hence are called adjectives of two terminations. In the neuter the nominative ends in -e.

# They are declined as follows: -

# levis (stem levi-), light.

	SINGULAR.		PLURAL.		
	M., F.	N.	M., F.	N.	
N., V.	levis	leve .	levēs	levia	
GEN.	levis	levis	levium	levium	
DAT.	levī	levī	levibus	levibus	
Acc.	levem	lev <b>e</b>	levis (ēs)	levia	
ABL.	levī	levī	levibus	levibus	

a. The following stems in ri- have a masc. nom. in -er; ācer, alacer, campester, celeber, equester, palūster, pedester, puter, salūber, silvester, terrester, volucer, and are called adjectives of three terminations. So, also, celer, celeris, celere; and names of months in -ber (cf. § 51. b): as, Octōber.

These are declined as follows :-

SINGULAR.

## ācer. keen.

# STEM ÄCTIPLURAL. N. M. F.

	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
N., V.	ācer	ācris	ācre	ācrēs	ācrēs	ācria
GEN.	ācr <b>is</b>	ācr <b>is</b>	ācr <b>is</b>	ācr <b>ium</b>	ācrium	ācrium
DAT.	ācrī	ācr <b>ī</b>	ācrī	āc <b>ribus</b>	ācr <b>ibus</b>	ācr <b>ibus</b>
Acc.	ācr <b>em</b>	ācr <b>em</b>	ācre	ācrīs (ēs)	ācris (ēs)	ācr <b>ia</b>
ABL.	ācr <b>ī</b>	ācr <b>ī</b>	ācrī	ācribus	āc <b>ribus</b>	ācribus

NOTE. — This formation is comparatively late, and hence, in the poets, either the masculine or the feminine form was sometimes used for both genders: as, coetus alacris (*Enn.*). In others, as faenebris, funebris, illūstris, lūgubris, mediocris, muliebris, there is no separate masculine form. Thus, —

### illustris. brilliant.

## Stem illūstri-

	SINGU	LAR.	PLURAL.		
	M., F.	N.	M., F.	N.	
N., V.	illustris	illüstre	illüstrēs	illūstria	
GEN.	illūstr <b>is</b>	illūstr <b>is</b>	illūstr <b>ium</b>	illüstr <b>ium</b>	
DAT.	illūstr <b>ī</b>	illūstr <b>ī</b>	illūstr <b>ibus</b>	illūstr <b>ibus</b>	
Acc.	illūstr <b>em</b>	illūstr <b>e</b>	illūstrīs (ēs)	illūstr <b>ia</b>	
ABL.	illūstrī	illūstrī	illūstribus	illūstribus	

b. CASE-FORMS. — Adjectives of two and three terminations, being true i-stems, retain in the ablative singular -ī, in the neuter plural -ia, in the genitive plural -ium, and in the accusative plural regularly -īs. But the forms of some are doubtful.

Note. - An ablative in -e is sometimes found in poetry.

- c. celer, swift, as a noun, denoting a military rank, has celerum in the genitive plural. The name Celer has the ablative in -e.
- 85. The remaining adjectives of the third declension are Consonant-stems; but all except Comparatives have the form of i-stems in the ablative singular -ī, the nominative, accusative, and vocative plural neuter -ia, and the genitive plural -ium. In the other cases they follow the rule of Consonant-stems.

Note. - The ablative singular of these words often has -e.

These adjectives (except comparatives) have the same nominative singular for all genders, and hence are called *adjectives of one termination*. All except stems in 1- or r- form the nominative singular from the stem by adding -s.

a. Adjectives of one termination are declined as follows:

	atr <b>ōx</b> , fi	egēns, 2	egēns, needy.		
	STEM at	rōc-	Sтем е	gent-	
Sing.	M., F.	N.	M., F.	N.	
N., V.	atrox	atrox	egēns	egēns	
GEN.	atrōc <b>is</b>	atrōcis	egent <b>is</b>	egent <b>is</b>	
DAT.	atrōci	atrōc <b>ī</b>	egentī	egentī	
Acc.	atrōc <b>em</b>	atrōx	egentem	egēn <b>s</b>	
ABL.	atrōci (e)	atrōc <b>ī</b> (e)	egenti (e)	egentī (e)	
Plur.					
N., V.	atrōc <b>ēs</b>	atrōc <b>ia</b>	egent <b>ēs</b>	egentia	
GEN.	atrōc <b>ium</b>	atrōcium	egentium	egentium	
DAT.	atrōc <b>ibus</b>	atrōc <b>ibus</b>	egentibus	egentibus	
Acc.	atrõc <b>is</b> ( <b>ēs</b> )	atrõc <b>ia</b>	egentis (ēs)	egent <b>ia</b>	
ABL.	atrōcibus	atrōc <b>ibus</b>	egentibus	egentibus	

# b. Other examples are the following: -

	concors, harmonious.		iens, going.		pār, equal.	
	STRM concord-		eunt-		par-	
Sing.	M., F.	N.	M., F.	N.	M., F.	N.
N., V.	concors	concors	iens	iēns	pār	pār
GEN.	concordis	concordis	euntis	euntis	păr <b>is</b>	păris
DAT.	concordī	concordī	euntī	euntī	pari	parī
Acc.	concordem	concors	euntem	iēn <b>s</b>	parem	pār
ABL.	concordī	concordi	eunte (i)	eunte (i)	parī	parī
Plur.						
N., V.	concordes	concordia	euntēs	euntia	pares	paria
GEN.	concordium	concordium	euntium	euntium	parium	parium
D., ABL.	concordibus	concordibus	euntibus	euntibus	paribus	paribus
Acc.	concordis (es	concordia	euntīs(ēs	)euntia	paris(ēs)	paria
	praeceps,	headlong.	dives, r	ich.	uber, fer	tile.
	praeceps,		dīves, ra		über, fer über	
Sing.	STEM pre					
Sing. N., V.	Stem pra M., F.	necipit-	dīvit	-	über	r-
0	STEM Pra M., F. praeceps	necipit- N.	dīvit M., F.	- N.	йbел	r- N.
N., V.	M., F. praeceps praecipitis	N. praeceps	divit M., F. dives	N. dīves	M., F.	n. ūber
N., V. GEN.	M., F. praeceps praecipitis	N. praeceps praecipitis	dīvit M., F. dīves dīvitis	N. dīves dīvitis dīvitī	M., F. über überis	N. <b>über</b> überis
N., V. GEN. DAT.	M., F. praeceps praecipitis praecipiti	N. praeceps praecipitis praecipitii	divit M., F. dives dīvitis dīvitī	N. dīves dīvitis dīvitī	M., F.  über überis überi	N. <b>über</b> überis überi
N., V. GEN. DAT. ACC.	M., F. praeceps praecipitis praecipiti praecipitem	N. praeceps praecipitis praecipiti praeceps	divit  M., F.  dives  divitis  diviti  divitem	N. dīves dīvitis dīvitī dīves	M., F. über überis überi überi	N. <b>über</b> überis  überi  überi
N., V. GEN. DAT. ACC. ABL. Plur.	M., F. praeceps praecipitis praecipiti praecipitem	N. praeceps praecipitis praecipiti praeceps praecipiti	dīvit M., F. dīves dīvitis dīvitī dīvitem dīvite	N. dīves dīvitis dīvitī dīves dīvite	M., F. über überis überi überi	N. <b>über</b> überis  überi  überi
N., V. GEN. DAT. ACC. ABL. Plur. N., V. GEN.	M., F. praeceps praecipitis praecipiti praecipitem praecipiti praecipiti	praeceps praecipitis praeceps praecipiti praeceps praecipiti praecipiti praecipitia	dīvit M., F. dīves dīvitis dīvitī dīvitem dīvite dīvitēs dīvitēs	N. dīves dīvitis dīvitī dīves dīvite [dītia] dīvitum	mber M., F. über überis überi überem übere überes überes	N.  über überis über über über über übere
N., V. GEN. DAT. ACC. ABL. Plur. N., V. GEN.	M., F. praeceps praecipitis praecipiti praecipitem praecipiti praecipiti	praeceps praecipitis praeceps praecipiti praeceps praecipiti praecipiti praecipitia	dīvit M., F. dīves dīvitis dīvitī dīvitem dīvite dīvitēs dīvitēs	N. dīves dīvitis dīvitī dīves dīvite [dītia] dīvitum	mber M., F. über überis überi überem übere überes überes	N.  über überis über über über über übere
N., V. GEN. DAT. ACC. ABL. Plur. N., V. GEN.	M., F. praeceps praecipitis praecipitem praecipiti praecipites [praeci praecipitiss ]	praeceps praecipitis praeceps praecipiti praeceps praecipiti praecipiti praecipitia	divit M., F. dives divitis divitif divitem divite divites divitibus	N. dīves dīvitis dīvitī dīves dīvite [dītia] dīvitum	mber M., F. über überis überi überem übere überes überum überibus	N.  über überis über über über über übere

# vetus, old.

## STEM veter- (for vetes or vetos-)

	SINGULA	AR.	PLURAL.		
	M., F.	N	M., F.	N.	
N., V.	vetus	vetus	veterēs	vetera	
GEN.	veteris	veteris	veterum	veterum	
DAT.	veterī	veterī	veteribus	veteribus	
Acc.	veterem	vetus	veter <b>ēs</b>	vetera	
ABL.	veter <b>e</b>	vetere	veteribus	veteribus	

<sup>1</sup> Given by grammarians, but not found.

Note. — Of these vetus is originally an s-stem. In most s-stems the r has intruded itself into the nominative also, as bi-corpor (for bi-corpos), dē-gener (for dē-genēs).

c. A few of these adjectives used as nouns, have a feminine form in -a: as, clienta, hospita, so the appellative Iūnō Sōspita.

### 3. Comparatives.

# 86. Comparatives are declined as follows:—

n	nelior, better.	plūs,	more.	
STEM	melior- for melios	3-	plūr- for plūs-	
Sing.	· M., F.	N.	M., F.	N.
N., V.	melior	melius		plūs
GEN.	meliōr <b>is</b>	meliōr <b>is</b>		plūr <b>is</b>
DAT.	meliörī	meliōr <b>ī</b>		
Acc.	meliōr <b>em</b>	melius		plūs
ABL.	meliore (i)	meliore (i)		plūre
Plur.				
N., V.	meliōr <b>ēs</b>	meliōra	plūr <b>ēs</b>	plūra
GEN.	meliōru <b>m</b>	meliōr <b>um</b>	plūr <b>ium</b>	plūr <b>ium</b>
DAT.	meliõribus	meliōr <b>ibus</b>	plüribus	plūr <b>ibus</b>
Acc.	meliōrīs (ēs)	meliöra	plūrīs (ēs)	plūra
ABL.	meliöribus	meliōr <b>ibus</b>	plūribus	plūribus

- a. The stem of comparatives properly ended in os-; but this became or- except in the neuter singular (nom., acc., voc.), where s is retained, and ŏ is changed to ŭ (cf. honŏr, corpus). Thus comparatives appear to have two terminations.
- b. The neuter singular plūs is used only as a noun. The genitive (rarely ablative) is used as an expression of value (cf. § 252. a). The dative is not found in classic use. The compound complūrēs, several, has sometimes neuter plural complūria.

All other comparatives are declined like melior.

### 4. Case-Forms.

- 87. In adjectives of Consonant stems the following Case-forms are to be remarked:—
- a. The ablative singular commonly ends in -i; but adjectives used as nouns (as superstes, survivor) have -e. Participles in -ns

used as such, or as nouns, regularly have -e; but when used as adjectives, -i.

The following have uniformly -i: āmēns, anceps, concors (and other compounds of cor), consors (but as a substantive, -e,) degener, hebes, ingens, inops, memor (and its compounds), par (in prose), perpes, praeceps, praeceps, teres.

- b. The following have regularly -e: caeles, compos [†dēses], dīves, hospes, pauper, particeps, prīnceps, superstes, sōspes; also patrials (see § 54. 3) and stems in āt-, īt-, nt-, rt-, when used as nouns, and sometimes when used as adjectives.
- c. The genitive plural ends commonly in -ium. The accusative plural regularly ends in -is, even in comparatives, which are less inclined to the i- declension.
  - d. The genitive plural ends in -um: -
- Always in dives, compos, inops, particeps, princeps, praepes, supplex, and compounds of nouns which have -um: as, quadru-pes, bi-color.
- 2. Sometimes, in poetry, in participles in -ns: as, silentum concilium, a council of the silent shades (Virg.).
- e. In vetus (gen. -ĕris), pūbes (gen. -ĕris), ūber (gen. -ĕris), which did not become i-stems, the endings -e (abl. sing.), -a (neut. nom. acc. plur.), -um (gen. plur.) are regular. (Ūber has also -ī in abl.)
- f. 1. Several adjectives vary in declension: as, gracilis (-us), hilaris (-us), inermis (-us), bicolor (-ōrus).
  - 2. A few are indeclinable: as, damnās, frūgi, nēquam.
- 3. Several are defective: as, exspēs (only nom.), exlēx, exlēgem (only nom. and acc. sing.), pernox, pernocte (only nom. and abl. sing.); prīmōris, sēminecis, which lack the nom. sing.

# 5. Special Uses.

# 88. The following special uses are to be observed: -

- a. Many adjectives have the meaning and construction of nouns: as, amīcus, a friend; aequālis, a contemporary; māiōrēs, ancestors.
- b. Many adjectives, from their signification, can be used only in the masculine and feminine. Such are adulescens, youthful; [† dēses], -idis, slothful; inops, -opis, poor; sospes, -itis, safe. So, senex, old man, and invenis, young man, are masculine only.

- c. Many nouns may be used as adjectives: as, pedes, a footman or on foot: so especially nouns in -tor (M.) and -trīx (F., also as N.), denoting the agent: as, victor exercitus, the conquering army; victrīcia arma, victorious arms.
- d. Certain forms of many adjectives are regularly used as adverbs. These are the accusative and ablative of the neuter singular: as, multum, multo, much; and the neuter singular of comparatives: as, melius, better; levius, more lightly.

### COMPARISON.

Latin, as English, has three degrees of comparison: the *Positive*, *Comparative*, and *Superlative*.

## I. Regular Comparison.

89. The Comparative is formed by adding -ior (neuter -ius), the Superlative by adding -issimus (-a, -um) to the stem of the Positive, which loses its final vowel: as, —

cārus, dear (st. cāro-); cārior, dearer; cārissimus, dearest.

aecus, equal (st. aequo); aequior, more equal; aequissimus, most equal.

levis, light (st. levi-); levior, lighter; levissimus, lightest.

fēlīx, happy (st. fēlīc-); fēlīcior, happier; fēlīcissimus, happiest.

hebes, dull (st. hebet-); hebetior, duller; hebetissimus, dullest.

a. Adjectives in -er form the superlative by adding -rimus to the nominative. The comparative is regular: as, —

ācer, keen; ācrior, ācerrimus.
miser, wretched; miserior, miserrimus.

So vetus (gen. veteris) veterrimus; and mātūrus, besides its regular superlative (mātūrissimus) has a rare form mātūrrimus.

For the comparative of vetus, vetustior (from vetustus), is used.

- b. The following in -lis add -limus to the stem clipped of its vowel: facilis (st. facili-), difficilis, similis, dissimilis, gracilis, humilis. The comparative is regular: as, facilis, facilior, facillimus.
- c. Compounds in -dicus (saying), -ficus (doing), -volus (willing) take in comparison the forms of corresponding participles in -ns: as,—

maledicus, slanderous; maledicentior, maledicentissimus. malevolus, spiteful; malevolentior, malevolentissimus.

d. Adjectives in -us preceded by a vowel rarely have forms of comparison, but take the adverbs magis, more; māximē, most: as,—

idoneus, fit; magis idoneus, māximē idoneus.

So, also, most derivatives in -ĭcus, -ĭdus, -ālis, -āris, -īlis, -ŭlus, -undus, -timus, -īnus, -īvus, -ōrus, with many compounds (as dēgener, inops) take magis and māximē.

e. Participles used as adjectives are regularly compared: as, — patiens, patient; patientior, patientissimus. apertus, open; apertior, apertissimus.

f. A form of diminutive is made upon the stem of some comparatives: as, grandius-culus, a little larger (see § 164. a).

2. Irregular and Defective Comparison.

90. Several adjectives have in their comparison irregular forms: as.—

bonus, melior, optimus, good, better, best.
malus, pēior, pessimus, bad, worse, worst.
māgnus, māior, māximus, great, greater, greatest.
parvus, minor, minimus, small, less, least.
multus, plūs (N.), plūrimus, much, more, most.
multī, plūrēs, plūrimī, many, more, most.
nēquam (indecl.), nēquior, nēquiasimus, worthless.
frūgī (indecl.), frūgālior, frūgālissimus, useful, worthy.
dexter, dexterior, dextimus, on the right, handy.

Note. — These irregularities arise from the use of different stems.

**91.** Some Comparatives and Superlatives appear without a Positive:—

a. The following are formed from stems not used as adjectives:—
cis, citrā (adv. on this side): citerior, citimus, hither, hithermost.
in, intrā (prep. in, within): interior, intimus, inner, inmost.
prae, prō (prep. before): prior, prīmus, former. first.
prope (adv. near): propior, proximus, nearer, next.
ültrā (adv. beyond): ülterior, ültimus, farther, farthest.

b. Of the following the positives are rare, except as nouns:

exterus, exterior, extrēmus (extimus), outer, outmost. [inferus], inferior, infimus (imus), lower, lowest (§ 82. d). [posterus], posterior, postrēmus (postumus), latter, last. [superus], superior, suprēmus or summus, higher, highest.

But the plurals exteri, foreigners; inferi, the gods below; posteri, posterity; superi, the heavenly gods, are common.

c. From iuvenis, youth, senex, old man are formed iunior, younger, senior, older. For these minor nātu and māior nātu are sometimes used (nātu being often omitted). The superlative is regularly expressed by minimus and māximus, with or without nātu.

d. In the following, one or other of the forms of comparison is wanting:—

- 1. The positive is wanting in deterior, deterrimus; ocior, ocissimus; potior, potissimus.
- 2. The comparative is wanting in bellus, caesius, falsus, fidus (with its compounds), inclutus, invictus, invitus, novus, pius, sacer, vafer, vetus (§ 89. a).
- 3. The superlative is wanting in agrestis, alacer, arcānus, caecus, diūturnus, exīlis, ingēns, iēiūnus, longincus, oblicus, opimus, proclivis, propincus, satur, sēgnis, sērus, supinus, surdus, taciturnus, tempestīvus, teres, vicīnus, and in some adjectives in -īlis.

Note. — Many adjectives —as aureus, golden — are from their meaning incapable of comparison; but each language has its own usage.

# 3. Comparison of Adverbs.

92. The comparative of an Adverb is the neuter accusative of the comparative of the corresponding Adjective; the superlative is the Adverb in -5 formed regularly from the superlative of the Adjective: as,—

cārē, dearly (from cārus, dear); cārius, cārissimē.

misere, wretchedly (from miser, wretched); miserius, miserrimē.

leviter (from levis, light); levius, levissimē.

audācter (audāciter) (from audāx, bold); audācius, audācissimē.

beně, well (from bonus, good); melius, optimē.

malě, ill (from malus, bad); pēius, pessimē.

antīquē, anciently, (from antīcus), antīquius, antīquissimē.

The following are irregular or defective: -

diū, long (in time); diūtius, diūtissimē.

potius, rather; potissimum, first of all, in preference to all.

saepe, often; saepius, oftener, again; saepissime.

satis, enough; satius, preferable.

secus, otherwise; secius, worse.

multum (multo), magis, maxime, much, more, most.

parum, not enough, minus, less, minimē, least.

#

4. Signification.

**93.** Besides their regular signification (as in English), the forms of comparison are used as follows:—

a. The Comparative denotes a considerable or excessive degree of a quality: as, brevior, rather short; audacior, too bold.

b. The Superlative (of eminence) may denote a very high degree of a quality with no distinct comparison, often strengthened by quam, vel, or unus: as, maximus numerus, a very great number; quam plurimi, as many as possible; quam maxime potest (maxime quam potest), as much as can be; virum unum doctissimum, the one most learned man.

c. With quisque, each, the superlative has a peculiar signification. Thus the phrase ditissimus quisque means, all the richest (each richest man); primus quisque, all the first (each first man in his order). Two superlatives with quisque imply a proportion: as,—

sapientissimus quisque aequissimo animo moritur (Cat. Maj. 83), the wisest men die with the greatest equanimity.

d. A high degree of a quality is also denoted by such adverbs as admodum, valde, very, or by per or prae in composition: as, valde malus, very bad; permagnus, very great; praealtus, very high.

e. A low degree of a quality is indicated by sub in composition (as, subrūsticus, rather clownish): or by minus, not very; minimē, not at all; parum, not enough; non satis, not much.

<sup>1</sup> As in taking things one by one off a pile, each thing is uppermost when you take it.

### NUMERALS.

### z. Cardinal and Ordinal.

**94.** Cardinal numbers are the regular numbers used in counting. Ordinal numbers are adjectives derived from these to express order or place.

Note. — Cardinal numbers answer the question quot? how many? Ordinal numbers, the question quotus? which in order? one of how many?

These two series are as follows: -

		ROM	1AN
	CARDINAL.	ORDINAL. NUM	ERALS.
ī.	ūnus, ūna, ūnum, one.	prīmus, -a, -um, first.	I.
2.	duo, duae, duo, two.	secundus (alter), second.	II.
3.	trēs, tria, three.	tertius, third.	III.
4.	quattuor (quātuor)	quārtus	IV.
5.	quinque	quīntus	v.
6.	sex	sextus	VI.
7.	septem	septimus	VII.
8.	octō ·	octāvus	VIII.
9.	novem	nõnus	IX.
IO.	decem	decimus	X.
II.	ūndecim	ūndecimus ·	XI.
12.	duodecim	duodecimus	XII.
13.	tredecim (decem et trēs)	tertius decimus	XIII.
14.	quattuordecim	quārtus decimus	XIV.
15.	quīndecim	quintus decimus	XV.
16.	sēdecim	sextus decimus	XVI.
17.	septendecim	septimus decimus	XVII.
18.	duodēvīgintī (octodecim)	duodēvīcēnsimus	XVIII.
19.	ūndēvīgintī (novendecim)	ūndēvīcēnsimus	XIX.
20.	vīgintī	vīcēnsimus (vīgēnsimus)	XX.
21.	vīgintī ūnus	vīcēnsimus prīmus	XXI.
	(or ūnus et vīgintī)	(ūnus et vīcēnsimus, etc.)	
30.	trīgintā	trīcēnsimus	XXX.
40.	quadrāgintā	quadrāgēnsimus	XL.
50.	quīnquāgintā	quīnquāgēnsimus	L.
60.	sexāgintā	sexāgēnsimus	LX.
70.	septuāgintā	septuāgēnsimus	LXX.

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	C.	ARDINAL.	ORDINAL. ROMAN	NUMERALS.
	80.	octōgintā	octōgēnsimus	LXXX.
	90.	nōnāgintā	nonagensimus	XC.
	100.	centum	centēnsimus	·C.
	101.	centum (et) ūnus, etc.	centēnsimus prīmus, etc.	CI.
	200.	ducentī, -ae, -a	ducentēnsimus	cc.
	300.	trecenti	trecentēnsimus	CCC.
	400.	quadringentī	quadringentēnsimus	CCCC.
	500.	quingenti	quīngentēnsimus	ID, or D.
	600.	sexcentī (sēscentī)	sexcentēnsimus	DC.
	700.	septingentī	septingentēnsimus	DCC.
	800.	octingentī	octingentēnsimus	DCCC.
	900.	nōngentī	nõngentēnsimus	DCCCC.
	1000.	mille	millēnsimus	CIO, or M.
	5000.	quinque milia (millia)	quīnquiēns millēnsimus	IDD.
1	10,000.	decem mīlia (millia)	deciēns millēnsimus	ccioo.
I	00,000.	centum mīlia (millia)	centiēns millēnsimus	CCCIDDD.

Note. - The forms in -ensimus are often written without the n: as. vīcēsimus, etc.

a. For the inflection of unus, see § 83. It often has the meaning of same or only. The plural is used in this sense; but also, as a simple numeral, with a plural noun of a singular meaning: as, una castra, one camp (cf. § 95. b). The plural occurs also in the phrase uni et alteri, one party and the other (the ones and the others).

b. Duo, two, and ambo, both, are thus declined : -

Nom.	duo	duae	duo
GEN.	duōrum	duā <b>rum</b>	duōrum
DAT.	duõbus	duābus	duõbus
Acc.	duōs (duo)	duãs	duo
ABL.	duōbus	duābus	duō <b>bus</b>

c. Tres, tria, three, is an i-stem, and is regularly declined like the plural of levis (see § 84). The other cardinal numbers, up to centum (100), are indeclinable.

The forms octodecim, novendecim are rare, duodēviginti, undeviginti being used instead. Similar forms for higher numbers are occasionally found: as, duodequadraginta, thirty-eight: undecentum, ninety-nine.

- d. The hundreds, up to 1000, are o-stems, and are regularly declined like the plural of bonus.
- e. Mille, a thousand, is in the singular an indeclinable adjective. In the plural (milia or millia, thousands), it is a neuter noun, followed by a genitive plural. Thus, cum mille hominibus, with a thousand men: but cum duobus milibus hominum, with two thousand men.

Note. — The singular mille is sometimes found as a noun in the nominative and accusative: as mille hominum mīsit; rarely in the other cases.

f. The ordinals are o-stems, and are declined like bonus.

### 2. Distributives.

95. Distributive Numerals are declined like the plural of bonus.

Note. — These answer the question quoteni? how many of each, or at a time? as, —

I.	singuli, one by one.	18.	octōnī dēnī or	100.	centēnī
2,	bīnī, two-and-two.		duodēvīcēnī	200.	ducēnī
3.	ternī, trīnī	19.	novēnī dēnī or	300.	trecēnī
4.	quaternī		ūndēvīcēnī	400.	quadringēnī
5-	quīnī .	20.	vīcēnī	500.	quīngēnī
6.	sēnī	21.	vīcēnī sīngulī, etc.	600.	sēscēnī
7.	septēnī	30.	trīcēnī	700.	septingēnī
8.	octoni	40.	quadrāgēnī	800.	octingēnī
9.	novēnī	50.	quĩnquāgēnī	900.	nöngēnī
10.	dēnī	60.	sexāgēnī	1000.	millēnī
II.	ūndēnī	70.	septuāgēnī :	2000.	bīna mīlia
12.	duodēnī	80.	octōgēnī 10	,000.	dēna mīlia
13.	ternī dēnī, etc.	90.	nonageni 100	,000.	centēna mīlia

# Distributives are used as follows: —

- a. In the sense of so many apiece or on each side: as, singula singulis, one apiece (one each to each one); agrī septēna iūgera plēbī dīvīsa sunt, i.e. seven jugera to each citizen, etc.
- b. Instead of cardinals, to express simple number, with a noun plural in form but singular in meaning: as, bina castra, two camps (duō castra would mean two forts). But the plural ūnī is used (instead of singulī) to signify one (see § 94. a), and trīnī (not ternī) for three.

- c. In multiplication: as, bis bīna, twice two; ter septēnīs diēbus, in thrice seven days.
- d. By the poets freely instead of cardinals, particularly where pairs or sets are meant: as, bīna hastīlia two shafts (two in a set).

### 3. Numeral Adverbs.

96. The Numeral Adverbs answer the question quotiens (quoties), how many times, how often.

I.	semel, once.	12.	duodeciēns	40.	quadrāgiēns
2.	bis, twice.	13.	terdeciēns	50.	quīnquāgiēns
3.	ter, thrice.	14.	quaterdeciēns	60.	sexāgiēns
4.	quater	15.	quīndeciēns	70.	septuāgiēns
5.	quīnquiēns (-ēs)	16.	sēdeciēns	80.	octōgiēns
6.	sexiens (-es)	17.	septiēsdeciēns	90.	nōnāgiēns
7.	septiens (-es)	18.	duodēvīciēns	100.	centiēns
8.	octiens	19.	ūndēvīciēns	200.	ducentiëns
9.	noviēns	20.	vīciēns	300.	trecentiēns
10.	deciēns	21.	semel et vīciēns, etc.	1000.	mīliēns
1.1	ündeciēns	20	trīciēns I	0.000	deciens miliens

Note. — They are used, in combination with mille, to express the higher numbers: as, ter et trīciēns (centēna mīlia) sēstertiūm, 3,300,000 sesterces. Forms in -ns are often written without the n: as, quīnquiēs.

### 4. Other Numerals.

- 97. The adjectives simplex, single, duplex, double, two-fold, triplex, quadru-, quincu-, septem-, decem-, centu-, sēsqui- (1½), multi-plex, manifold, are called Multiplicatives.
  - a. PROPORTIONALS are: duplus, triplus, etc., twice as great, etc.
- b. Temporals: bimus, trimus, of two or three years' age; biennis, triennis, lasting two or three years; bimestris, of two months; biduum, biennium, a period of two days or years.
  - c. PARTITIVES: binarius, ternarius, of two or three parts.
  - d. FRACTIONS: dimidia pars, a half; tertia pars, a third.

Note. — But fractions are regularly expressed by special words denoting the parts of the as (pound or unit): as, triens, a third; bes, two-thirds.

e. Other derivatives are: unio, unity; binio, the two (of dice); primanus, of the first legion; primarius, of the first rank; denarius, a sum of 10 asses; binus (distributive), double, etc.

### 5. PRONOUNS.

98. Pronouns have special forms of declension.

### 1. Personal Pronouns.

The Personal pronouns of the first person are ego, I, nos, we; of the second person, tū, thou, vos, ye or you.

### FIRST PERSON.

Nom.	ego, I.	nos, we.
GEN.	mei, of me.	nostrum (-tri), of us.
DAT.	mihi (mi), to me.	nobis, to us.
Acc.	mē, me.	nos, us.
Voc.	010000000000000000000000000000000000000	
ABL.	mē, by me.	nobis by us.

#### SECOND PERSON.

NOM.	tu, thou or you.	vos, ye or you.
GEN.	tuī,	vostrūm, vostrī; vestrūm (-trī)
DAT.	tibi	võbis
Acc.	tē	võs
Voc.	tū	vos
ABL.	¹ tē	võbis

- a. The personal pronouns of the third person he, she, it, they are wanting in Latin, a demonstrative being used for them when required.
- $\delta$ . The plural  $n\overline{o}s$  is often used for the singular ego; the plural  $v\overline{o}s$  never for the singular  $t\overline{u}$ .

#### 2. Reflexive Pronouns.

Reflexive pronouns are used in the Oblique Cases to refer to the Subject of the sentence or clause (see § 196).

a. In the first and second persons the oblique cases of the Personal pronouns are used as Reflexives: as, te laudes, you praise yourself; nobis persuademus, we persuade ourselves.

b. The reflexive pronoun of the Third Person has a special form, the same for both singular and plural. It is thus declined:—

GEN. sui, of himself, herself, themselves.

DAT. sibi, to himself, herself, themselves.

ACC. se (sese), himself, herself, themselves.

ABL. se (sese), by (etc.) himself, herself, themselves.

### a. Possessive Pronouns.

The Possessive pronouns are, for the first person: meus, wy, noster, our; for the second person: tuus, thy, your, voster, vester, your; for the third person: suus, his, her, their. These are declined like adjectives of the first and second declensions (see §§ 81, 82). But meus has regularly mī (rarely meus) in the vocative singular masculine.

NOTE. — Suus is always reflexive, referring to the subject. For a possessive pronoun of the third person not referring to the subject, the genitive of a demonstrative must be used. Thus, patrem suum occidit, he killed his (own) father; but patrem ēius occidit, he killed his (somebody else's) father.

- 99. In the meaning and use of the Personal, Reflexive, and Possessive pronouns it is to be observed that —
- a. To express Possession and similar ideas the possessive pronouns must be used, not the genitive of the personal or reflexive pronouns. Thus, my father is pater meus never pater mei.
  - b. The forms nostrum, vostrum, etc., are used partitively: as, -

unusquisque nostrum, each one of us; but also vostrum omnium, of all of you.

c. The genitives mei, tui, sui, nostri, vestri are chiefly used objectively (see § 213. N.): as,—

memor sis nostri, be mindful of us, (me). me tui pudet, I am ashamed of you.

d. The reciprocals one another and each other are expressed by inter se or alter . . . alterum: as, —

alter alterius ova frangit, they break each other's eggs (one . . . of the other).

inter se amant, they love one another.

- e. The preposition cum, with, is joined with the ablative of the personal and reflexive pronouns: as, tecum loquitur, he talks with you.
- f. To the personal and reflexive (and sometimes to the possessive) pronouns certain enclitics are joined for emphasis: -met to all except tu (nom.); -te to tu (tute, also tutimet); -pte to the ablative singular of the adjectives, and in early Latin to the others, as,—

võsmetipsõs prõditis, you betray your own very selves. suõpte pondere, by its own weight.

### 4. Demonstrative Pronouns.

- 100. The Demonstrative pronouns are hic, this; is, ille, iste, that; with the Intensive ipse, self, and idem, same.
- a. Ille is a later form of ollus (olle), which is sometimes used in poetry; a genitive singular in -ī, -ae, -ī occurs in ille and iste.
- b. Hie is compounded of the stem ho- with the demonstrative -ce. In most of the forms final e is dropped, in some the whole termination. But in these latter it is sometimes retained for emphasis; as, hūius-ce, hīs-ce. Īdem is the demonstrative is with the affix -dem.
- 101. The demonstratives are used either with nouns as Adjectives, or alone as Pronouns. From their signification they cannot (except ipse) have a vocative. They are thus declined:—

		hic, this.			is, that.	
Sing.	M.	F.	N.	м.	F.	N.
Nom.	hīc	haec	hōc	is	ea	id
GEN.	hūius	hūius	hūius	ēius	ēius	ēius
DAT.	huic	huic	huic	eī	eĭ	eī
Acc.	hunc	hanc	hōc	eum	eam	id
ABL.	hōc	hāc	hōc	eō	eā	eō
Plur.						
Nom.	hī	hae	haec	i (ei)	eae	ea
GEN.	hōrum	hārum	hōrum	eorui	n eārum	eōrum
DAT.	hīs	hīs	hîs	eis (i	s) eis (is)	eis (is)
Acc.	hōs	hās	haec	eos	eās	ea
ABL.	hīs	hīs	hīs	eïs (i	s) eis (is)	eïs (īs)

Sing.	i	lle, that.		ip	ве, self.	
Nom.	ille	illa	illud	ipse	ipsa	ipsum
GEN.	illīus	illius	illius	ipsīus	ipsīus	ipsīus
DAT.	illī	illī	illī	ipsī	ipsī	ipsī
Acc.	illum	illam	illud	ipsum	ipsam	ipsum
Voc.				ipse	ipsa	ipsum
ABL.	illõ	illā	illō	ōaqi	ipsā	ipsō
Plur.						
Nom.	illī	illae	illa	ipsī	ipsae	ipsa
GEN.	illorum	illārum	illorum	ipsorum	ipsārum	ipsorum
DAT.	illīs	illis	illis	ipsīs	ipsīs	ipsīs
Acc.	illõs	illās	illa	ipsõs	ipsās	ipsa
Voc.				ipsī	ipsae	ipsa
ABL.	illīs	illïs	illis	ipsīs	ipsīs	ipsīs

idem, the same.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

N.	idem	eădem	ĭdem	dem (ei-)	eaedem	eădem
G.	ēiusdem	ēiusdem	ēiusdem	ieorundem	eārundem	eorundem
D.	eidem	eidem	eidem	eîsdem(īs-)	eisdem(is-)	eisdem(is-)
Ac.	eundem	eandem	ĭdem	eosdem	eāsdem	eădem
AB.	eodem	eādem	eödem	eisdem(is-)	eïsdem(īs-)	eisdem(is-)

iste, ista, istud, that (yonder), is declined like ille.

Ille and iste are combined with the demonstrative -ce. Thus, -Sing. M. N. M. N. NOM. illic illaec illoc (illuc) istoc (istuc) istic istaec illune illane illoe (illuc) Acc. istune istane istoc (istuc) ABL. illoc illāc istoc istac istoc illoc Plur. N.Acc. illaec istaec

Note. — This appended -ce is also found with pronouns in numerous combinations: as, hūiusce, hunce, hōrunce, hārunce, hōsce, hīsce (cf. § 100.  $\delta$ ), illīusce, īsce; also with the interrogative -ne, in hōcine, hōscine, istūcine, illīcine, etc. The intensive -pse is found in the forms eapse (nom.), eumpse, eampse, eōpse, eāpse (abl.).

a. The combinations hūiusmodī (hūiuscemodī), ēiusmodī, etc., are used as indeclinable adjectives, equivalent to tālis, such: as, rēs ēiusmodī, such a thing (a thing of that sort; cf. § 215).

- 102. In the use of these demonstratives it is to be observed that —
- a. Hic is used of what is near the speaker (in time, place, thought, or on the written page). It is sometimes used of the speaker himself; sometimes for "the latter" of two persons or things mentioned in speech or writing; more rarely for "the former," when that, though more remote on the written page, is nearer the speaker in time, place, or thought.
- b. Ille is used of what is remote (in time, etc.). It is sometimes used to mean "the former" (see under hic, a); also (usually following its noun) of what is famous or well-known.
- c. Iste is used of what is between the two others in remoteness: often in allusion to the person addressed, hence called the demonstrative of the second person. It especially refers to an opponent, and frequently implies a kind of antagonism or contempt.
- d. Is is a weaker demonstrative than the others and does not denote any special object, but refers to one just mentioned, or to be afterwards explained by a relative. It is used oftener than the others as a personal pronoun; and is often merely a correlative to the relative quī: as, eum quem, one whom; eum consulem quī non dubitet (Cic.), a consul who will not hesitate.
- e. Ipse may be used with a personal pronoun of either person, or a noun: as nos ipsi (nosmetipsi), we ourselves; ipsi fontes, the very fountains; also independently (the verb or the context implying the pronoun), as ipsi adestis, you are yourselves present.

NOTE. — In English, the pronouns himself, etc., are used both intensively (as, he will come himself) and reflexively (as, he will kill himself): in Latin the former would be ipse; the latter, so or sos.

f. The pronouns hic, ille, and is are used to point in either direction, back to something mentioned or forward to something to be mentioned. The neuter forms are used to refer to a clause, phrase, or idea: as, est illud quidem vel maximum animum videre (Tusc. i. 22, 52), that is in truth a very great thing, to see the soul.

### 5. Relative Pronouns.

103. The relative pronoun qui, who, which, is thus declined:—

DT 27 D 4 T

	SINGULAR			4.44	LEURALI		
Nom.	qui	quae	quod	qui	quae	quae	
GEN.	cūius	cūius	cūius	quōrum	quārum	quōrum	
DAT.	cui	cui	cui	quibus	quibus	quibus	
Acc.	quem	quam	quod	quös	quās	quae	
ARL.	quõ	ดบลิ	ดนดิ	quibus	quibus	quibus	

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## 6. Interrogative and Indefinite Pronouns.

104. The interrogative or indefinite quis (qui), who? which? any, is declined in the singular as follows:—

Nom.	quis (qui)	quae	quid (quod)
GEN.	cuius	cūius	cūius
DAT.	cui	cui	cui
Acc.	quem	quam	quid (quod)
ABL.	quō	quā	quō

The plural is the same as that of the Relative. The singular quis is rare as an indefinite (see  $\S$  105. d).

NOTE.—The Relative, Interrogative, and Indefinite Pronouns are originally of the same Stem, and most of the forms are the same.

CASE-FORMS.—a. The relative has always qui, quae, quod. The interrogative and indefinite have quis, quae, quid, substantive, and qui, quae, quod, adjective: as, quis vocat? who calls? quid vides? what do you see? qui homo vocat? what man calls? quod templum vides? what temple do you see?

Note. — But qui is often used without any apparent adjective force; and quis is very common as an adjective, especially with words denoting a person: as, qui nominat me? who calls my name? quis dies fuit? what day was it? quis homo? what man? but often qui homo? what sort of a man? nescio qui sis, I know not who you are.

- b. Old forms for the genitive and dative are quoius, quoi.
- c. The form qui is used for the ablative of both numbers and all genders; but especially as an adverb (how, by which way, in any way), and in the combination quicum, with whom, as an interrogative or an indefinite relative.
  - d. A dative and ablative plur. quis is old, but not infrequent.
- e. The preposition cum is joined to all forms of the ablative, as with the personal pronouns: as, quōcum, quicum, quibuscum.

f. The accusative form quom, cum (stem quo-) is used only as a conjunctive adverb, meaning when or since.

[\$ 105.

- g. The adjective uter is used as an interrogative and indefinite relative. For its peculiar declension, see § 83.
- 105. The pronouns quis and qui appear in various combinations.
- a. The adverb -cumque (-cunque) with the relative makes an indefinite relative, declined like the simple word: as, quicumque, quaecumque, quodcumque, whoever, whatever; cuiuscunque, etc.

Note. — This suffix, with the same meaning, may be used with any relative: as, qualiscumque, of whatever sort; quandocumque (also rarely quandoque), whenever; ubicumque, wherever.

b. The interrogative form doubled makes an indefinite relative: as, quisquis, whoever (so utut, however, ubiubi, wherever). Of quisquis both parts are declined, but the feminine is wanting in classic use: thus—

Sing. Nom. quisquis (quiqui) quidquid (quicquid)

Acc. quemquem quidquid (quicquid)

ABL. quoquo quaqua quoquo

Plur. Nom. quiqui
D., ABL. quibusquibus

- c. Indefinite compounds are: quidam, a, a certain; quispiam, any; quivis, quilibet, any you please; quisquam, any at all. Of these the former part is declined like quis and qui, but all have both quod (adjective) and quid (substantive) in the neuter.
- d. The indefinite quis, otherwise rare, is found in the compound aliquis, some one, and the combinations sī quis. if any; nō quis, lest any, that none; ecquis, num quis, whether any, and a few others.

These are declined like quis, but have generally qua instead of quae, except in the nominative plural feminine. The forms aliquae, ecquae, nominative singular feminine, occur rarely.

Note. — The compounds quispiam, aliquis, and quisquam are often used instead of quis with sī, nē, and num, and are rather more emphatic, as sī quis, if any one, sī aliquis, if some one, sī quisquam, if any one (ever, cf. h).

These compounds are thus declined: -

Sing.	aliquis, some.						
Nom.	aliquis (aliqui)	aliqua	aliquid (aliquod)				
GEN.	alicuius	alicuius	alicuius				
DAT.	alicui	alicui	alicui				
Acc.	aliquem	aliquam	aliquid (aliquod)				
ABL.	aliquō	aliquā	aliquō				
Plur.							
Nom.	aliqui	aliquae	aliqua				
GEN.	aliquorum	aliquārum	aliquorum				
D., ABL.	aliquibus	aliquibus	aliquibus				
Acc.	aliquos	aliquās	aliqua				

The forms in -qui and -quod are adjective; those in -quis and -quid, substantive: as, aliquod bonum, some good thing; but aliquid boni, something good (something of good).

e. The enclitic particle que added to the interrogative gives a universal: as, quisque, every one, uterque, either of two, or both. In this combination quis is declined regularly.

In the compound unusquisque, every single one, both parts are declined, and they are sometimes separated by other words.

Quotus quisque has the signification how many, pray? often in a disparaging sense.

- f. The relative and interrogative have a possessive adjective cūius (-a, -um), whose; and a patrial cūiās (cūiātis), of what country.
- g. Quantus, how great, quālis, of what sort, are derivative adjectives from the interrogative. They are either interrogative or relative, corresponding to the demonstratives tantus, tālis.
- h. Quisquam, with ullus, any, unquam, ever, usquam, anywhere, are used only in negative sentences, or where there is an implied negative (as in interrogative or conditional sentences, or after quam, than; sine, without; vix, scarcely): as, nec quisquam ex agmine tanto, and nobody from that great throng; si quisquam est timidus, is ego sum, if any one is timorous, I am the man; sine ullo domino, without any master.
- i. Quisnam is emphatic: pray who? ecquis and numquis are compounded from the indefinite particle on and the interrogative num; they mean not who, but any in a question: as, ecquis nos videt? does any one see us? num quid hoc dubitas, do you at all doubt this?

### 7. Correlatives.

106. Many pronouns, pronominal adjectives, and adverbs have corresponding demonstrative, relative, interrogative and indefinite forms. Such parallel forms are called CORRELATIVES. They are shown in the following table:—

DEMONSTR.	RELATIVE.	INTERROG	. INDEF. RELATIVE.	INDEF.
is, that, he	qui, who	quis? who	? quisquis, whoever	aliquis, some
tantus, so great	quantus	quantus?	(quantuscumque)	aliquantus
tālis, such	quālis	quālis?	(qualiscumque)	
ibi, there	ubi	ubi?	ubiubi	alicubi
eō, thither	quō	quō?	quōquō	aliquō
eā, that way	quā	quā ?	quāquā	aliquã
inde, thence	unde	unde?	(undecumque)	alicunde
tum, then	quom, cum	quando?	(cumcumque)	aliquando
tot, so many	quot	quot?	quotquot	aliquot
toties, so often	quoties	quoties?	(quotiescumque)	aliquoties

- a. The forms tot so many, quot, how (as) many, aliquot, several, totidem, as many, are indeclinable, and may take any gender or case: as, per tot annos, tot proeliis, tot imperatores (Cic.), so many commanders, for so many years, in so many battles.
- b. The relative word in a pair of correlatives is often to be rendered simply as: thus, tantum argenti quantum aeris, as much (of) silver as (of) copper.
- c. A frequent form of correlative is found in the ablative quo or quanto, by how much; eo or tanto, by so much, used with comparatives (rendered in English the . . . the): as,
  - quo magis conaris, eo longius progrederis, the more you try, the farther on you get.
- **107.** Certain relative and demonstrative adverbs are used correlatively as conjunctions: as,—

ut (rel.) . . . ita, sic (dem.), as (while) . . . so (yet).

tam (dem.) . . . quam (rel.), so (as) . . . as.

cum (rel.) ... tum (dem.), both ... and; while ... so also; not only ... but also.

Compare et ... et, both ... and; aut (vel) ... aut (vel), either ... or; sive (seu) ... sive; utrum ... an, whether ... or.

#### 6. VERBS.

#### I. INFLECTION OF THE VERB.

- 1. Voice, Mood, Tense.
- 108. The inflection of the Verb denotes Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person.
  - a. The Voices are two: Active and Passive.
- b. The Moods are four: Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative, and Infinitive.
  - c. The TENSES are six, viz. : -
    - 1. For continued action, Present, Imperfect, Future.
    - 2. For completed action, Perfect, Pluperfect, Future Perfect.
- d. Person and Number. There are separate terminations for each of the three Persons, First, Second, and Third, both in the singular and in the plural.
  - 2. Noun and Adjective Forms.
- 109. The following Noun and Adjective forms are also included in the inflection of the Latin Verb:
  - a. Four Participles, viz.: -

Active: the Present and Future Participles.

Passive: the Perfect Participle and the Gerundive.

- b. The Gerund: this is in form a neuter noun of the second declension, used only in the oblique cases of the singular. A corresponding nominative is supplied by the Infinitive (see § 114. note).
  - c. The SUPINE: see §§ 71. a and 114. b.

#### 3. Defective Forms.

- 110. Special forms for some of the tenses are wanting in certain parts of the verb:
  - a. The Subjunctive mood wants the Future and the Future Perfect.
- b. In the Passive voice in all moods the tenses of completed action are supplied by the Perfect Participle with the present, imperfect, and future of the verb esse, TO BE: as, occisus est, he was killed.

- c. The Imperative mood has only the Present and the Future.
- d. In the Infinitive mood the Present (active and passive) and the Perfect (active) only are formed by inflection. A Future in the active voice is formed by the Future Participle with the infinitive esse to be: as, amātūrus esse, to be going to love; in the passive, by the Former Supine with iri (infin. pass. of ire, to go): as, amātum iri, to be about to be loved. For the Perfect passive, see b above.

#### II. SIGNIFICATION OF THE FORMS OF THE VERB.

#### I. Voices.

- 111. The Active and Passive Voices in Latin generally correspond to the active and passive in English; but —
- a. The passive voice often has a reflexive meaning: as, induitur vestem, he puts on his (own) clothes; vertitur, he turns (himself).
- b. Many verbs are used only in the passive form, but with an active or reflexive meaning. These are called DEPONENTS (deponentia), i.e. verbs which have laid aside (deponere) the active form and the passive meaning (see § 135).
- c. Three verbs have a passive form in the tenses of completed action: audeo, ausus sum; gaudeo, gavisus sum; fido, fisus sum.

#### 2. Moods.

## 112. The Moods are used as follows: —

- a. The Indicative is used for *direct assertions* and *interrogations*: as, valēsne? valeō, are you well? I am well; and also in some other idiomatic forms of predication.
- b. The Subjunctive has many uses, as in commands, conditions, and various dependent clauses. It is often translated by the Indicative; often with the auxiliaries may, might, would, should; often by the Infinitive; or by the Imperative. Thus,—

eāmus, let us go.

cum venisset, when he had come.

adsum ut videam, I am here to see (that I may see).

tu ne quaesieris, do not thou inquire.

nemo est qui ita existimet, there is no one who thinks so.

beatus sis, may you be blessed.

ne abeat, let him not depart.

quid morer, why should I delay?

sunt qui putent, there are some who think.

imperat ut scribam, he orders me to write (that I write).

nescio quid scribam, I know not what to write.

licet eas, you may go (it is permitted that you go).

cave cadas, don't fall.

vereor ne eat, I fear he will go.

vereor ut eat, I fear he will not go.

si moneam audiat (pres.), if I should warn, he would hear.

si vocarem audiret (imperf.), if I were (now) calling, he would hear.

c. The IMPERATIVE is used for exhortation, entreaty, or command; but the Subjunctive is often used instead.

d. The Infinitive is used chiefly as an indeclinable noun, as the subject or object of another verb. In special uses it takes the place of the Indicative, and may be translated by that mood.

Note. - For the Syntax of the Moods, see §§ 264 ff.

## 3. Participles.

## 113. The Participles are used as follows:—

a. The Present participle (ending in -ns) has commonly the same meaning as the English participle in -ING: as, vocāns, calling; legentēs, reading. (For its inflection, see egēns, § 85.)

b. 1. The Future participle (ending in -urus) is oftenest used to express what is *likely* or *about* to happen.

Note. — With the tenses of esse, to be, it forms the First Periphrastic conjugation: as, urbs est casura, the city is about to fall.

- 2. It is also used, more rarely, to express purpose (see § 293. b): as, venit audītūrus, he came to hear (about to hear).
  - c. The Perfect participle (ending in -tus, -sus) has two uses : -
- 1. It is sometimes equivalent to the English Perfect Passive participle in -ED: as, tectus, sheltered; acceptus, accepted; ictus, having been struck; and often has simply an adjective meaning: as, acceptus, acceptusle.
- 2. It is also used to form certain tenses of the passive (§ 110. b): as, vocātus est, he was (has been) called.

Note. — There is no Perfect Active or Present Passive participle in Latin. The perfect participle of deponents, however, is generally used in an active sense: as, secūtus, having followed. In the case of other verbs some different construction is used for these missing participles: as, cum vēnisset, having come (when he had come); equitātū praemīssō, having sent forward the cavalry (the cavalry having been sent forward); dum verberātur, while he is (being) struck.

d. 1. The Gerundive (ending in -ndus) is often used as an adjective implying obligation or necessity (ought or must): as, audiendus est, he must be heard.

NOTE. — With the tenses of esse, TO BE, it forms the Second Periphrastic conjugation; as, deligendus erat, he ought to have been chosen.

- 2. In the oblique cases the Gerundive commonly has the same meaning as the Gerund (cf. § 114. a), though its construction is different. (For examples, see §§ 295 ff.)
- e. The Participles may all be used as simple adjectives; and the present and perfect are sometimes compared: as amāns, amantior, more fond; dīlēctus, dīlēctissimus, dearest.
- f. The Present and Perfect participles are (like adjectives) often used as nouns: as, regentes, rulers; mortui, the dead.
- g. As an adjective, the participle is often used predicatively to indicate some special circumstance or situation: as, moritūrī vōs salūtāmus, we at the point of death (about to die) salute you.

## 4. Gerund and Supine.

## 114. The Gerund and Supine are used as follows:—

a. The GERUND is, in form, the neuter singular of the Gerundive. It is a verbal noun, corresponding in meaning to the English verbal noun in -ING (§ 295): as, loquendī causā, for the sake of speaking.

Note. — The Gerund is found only in the oblique cases. A corresponding nominative is supplied by the Infinitive: thus, scribere est ūtile, writing (to write) is useful; but, are scribendī, the art of writing.

- b. The SUPINE is in form a noun of the fourth declension (§ 71. a), found only in the accusative, ending in -tum, -sum, and the ablative (or dative, probably both), ending in -tū, -sū. These are sometimes called the Former and the Latter Supine. The Former is used after verbs and the Latter after adjectives (§§ 302, 303): as,—
  - I. vēnit spectātum, he came to see.
  - 2. mīrābile dictū, wonderful to tell.

#### 5. Tenses.

- 115. The tenses of the verb are of two classes, viz.:
  - 1. Of continued action.
  - I. PRESENT: scribo, I am writing.
  - 2. IMPERFECT: scribebam, I was writing.
  - 3. FUTURE: scribam, I shall write.
    - 2. Of completed action.
  - 4. PERFECT : scripsi, I have written, I wrote.
  - 5. PLUPERFECT; scripseram, I had written.
  - 6. FUTURE PERFECT: scripsero, I shall have written.
    - a. Tenses of the Indicative.
- a. The tenses of the Indicative have, in general, the same meaning as the corresponding tenses in English; but are in some cases distinguished differently in their use. Thus,—
- 1. The Future or Future Perfect is often used in subordinate clauses, where the English uses the Present: as, —

sī quid habēbō dabō, if I have (shall have) anything. I will give. cum vēnerō scrībam, when I come (shall have come), I will write.

2. The Present and Imperfect are often used to express continued action where the English uses tenses of completed action: as,—

iam diū aegrōtō, I have long been (and still am) sick.
iam diū aegrōtābam, I had long been (and still was) sick.

Note. — Here the Perfect, aegrōtāvī, would imply that I am now well; the Pluperfect, that I was well at the past time designated.

- b. The Imperfect is used to describe in past time a continued action or a condition of things: as, scribebat, he was writing; ardebat, it was on fire.
- c. The Perfect, having two separate uses, is divided into the Perfect Definite and the Perfect Historical (or Indefinite).
- 1. The Perfect Definite represents the action of the verb as completed in present time, and corresponds to the English (present-or compound-) perfect: as, scripsi, I have written.
- 2. The Perfect Historical narrates a simple act or state in past time without representing it as in progress. It corresponds to the English past or preterite: as, scripsit, he wrote; arsit, it blazed up.

#### b. Tenses of the Subjunctive.

d. The tenses of the Subjunctive Mood are chiefly used in dependent clauses, following the rule for the Sequence of Tenses (see § 286); but have also special idiomatic uses (see Syntax).

#### III. PERSONAL ENDINGS.

116. Verbs have regular terminations for each of the three Persons, both singular and plural, active and passive. These are called Personal endings.

#### IV. FORMS OF THE VERB.

- 117. Every Latin verb-form (except the adjective and noun forms) is made up of two parts, viz.:—
  - I. The STEM. This is either the root or a modification of it.
  - 2. The ENDING, consisting of -

ACTIVE

- a. the signs of mood and tense.
- b. the personal ending (see § 116).
- 118. The Verb-endings, as they are formed by the signs for mood and tense combined with personal endings, are exhibited in the following table:

AUIII			I ABBITES	
INDIC.	SUBJ.	INDIC.	SUBI.	
Present.				
Sing. 1ō	-m	-or	-r	
25	-s	-ris or -re	-ris or -re	
3t "way"	-t	-ris or -re	-tur	
Plur. Imus	-mus	-mur -mini A	-mur	
2tis 82	-tis	-mini 5 %	-minī	
3nt	-nt	-ntur	-ntur	
	Impe	erfect.		
Sing. 1ba-m	-re-m	-ba-r	-re-r	
2bā-s	-rē-s	-bā-ris (-re)	-rē-ris(-re)	
3ba-t	-re-t	-bā-tur	-rē-tur	
Plur. 1bā-mus	-rē-mus	-bā-mur	-rē-mur	
2bā-tis	-rē-tis	-bā-minī	-rē-minī	
3ba-nt	-re-nt	-ba-ntur	-re-ntur	

<sup>1</sup> These numerals refer to the four conjugations given later (see § 122).

§ 116.]	MS OF	THE VE.	KB.	0
ACTIVE.			PASS	SIVE.
INDICATIVE.	Fu	ture.	INDICA	
1. 11. <sup>1</sup>	III. IV.	I. II.		III. IV.
Sing. 1b-ō	(-a-m	-bo-	r .	(-a-r
2bi-s	-ē-s	-be-	ris(-re) 🖔	ē-ris (re)
3bi-t	-e-t	-bi-t	, 24	-ê-tur
Plur. 1bi-mus 2-2-1	-ē-mus	-bi-ı	0	ĕ
2bi-tis	-ē-tis	-bi-ı	minī	-ē-minī
3bu-nt	-e-nt	-bu-	ntur	-e-ntur
	-	rfect.	INDIC.	Subj.
	ri-m		(11111111	sim
	ri-s	-tus(-ta, -tum)	es	sis
	ri-t	-tum)	est	sit
			(	
	ri-mus	-tī (-tae,	estis	simus
	ri-tis	-ta)		sītis
3ēru-nt or-ēre -e	ri-nt		aunt	sint
	Plupe	erfect.		
Sing. Iera-m -is	sse-m	-tma/-ta	eram	essem
2erā-s -is	sse-s	-tus(-ta, -tum)	erās	esses
3era-t -is	sse-t	-tum)	erat	esset
Piur. Ierā-mus -is	ssē-mus	1=/1	erāmus	essēmus
2erā-tis -is	ssē-tis	-ti_(-tae, -ta)	erātis	essētis
3era-nt -is	sse-nt	-ta)	erant	essent
	Future	Perfect.		
Sing. Ier-ō	1		erō	
2eri-s		-tus(-ta,	erō eris	
3eri-t •		-tum)	erit	
Plur. Ieri-mus			erimus	
2eri-tis		-tī(-tae,	erimus eritis	
3eri-nt		-ta)	erunt	
3.	7		( 02 11110	
IMPERATIVE.  Present.				
Sing. 2. — Plur. 2te   Sing. 2re Plur. 2mini				
Future.				
2tō 2tō			2tor	2
3tō 3nt			3tor	3ntor
311			5101	31101

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> These numerals refer to the four conjugations given later (see § 122).

For convenience, a table of the Noun and Adjective forms of the verb is here added.

## INFINITIVES.

Presre (Pres. stem)	I. II. IVrī; IIIī
Perfisse (Perf. stem)	-tus (-ta, -tum) esse
Futturus (-a, -um) esse	-tum īrī

#### PARTICIPLES.

Presns, -ntis	
Perf	-tus, -ta, -tum
Futtūrus, -a, -um	Gerndus, -a, -um
GERUND.	SUPINE.
-ndī, -ndō, -ndum -ndō	-tum, -tū

#### THE VERB SUM.

119. The verb sum, be, is irregular and has no gerund or supine, and no participle but the future.

Its conjugation is given at the outset, as it is used in the inflection of all other verbs.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: Pres. sum, Infin. esse, Perf. fui, Fut. Part. futurus.

25 1	2 660, 7 600	OF STATE OF
1	INDICATIVE.	. SUBJUNCTIVE.
	Pre	esent.
Sing.	I. sum, I am.	sim 1
,	2. es, thou art (you are).	sīs
	3. est, he (she, it) is.	sit
Plur.	I. sumus, we are.	sīmus
	2. estis, you are.	sītis
	3. sunt, they are.	sint
	Imp	erfect.
Sino.	I. eram. I was.	essem (forem)

		,,
Sing. 1.	eram, I was.	essem (forem)
2.	erās, you were.	essēs (forēs)
3.	erat, he (she, it) was.	esset (foret)
Plur. 1.	erāmus, we were.	essēmus
2.	erātis, you were.	essetis
3.	erant, they were.	essent (forent)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> No translations of the subjunctive are given, as all are misleading.

Future.

INDICATIVE.

· SUBJUNCTIVE.

Sing. 1. ero, I shall be.

2. eris, you will be.

3. erit. he will be.

Plur. I. erimus, we shall be.

2. eritis, you will be.

3. erunt, they will be.

## Perfect.

Sing. I. fui, I was (have been).

2. fuistī, you were.

3. fuit, he was.

Plur. I. fuimus, we were.

2. fuistis, you were.

3. fuerunt, fuere, they were.

fuerim

fueris

fuerit.

fuerimus

**fueritis** fuerint

#### Pluperfect.

Sing. I. fueram, I had been.

2. tueras, you had been.

3. fuerat, he had been.

Plur. I. fueramus, we had been. 2. fuerātis, you had been.

3. fuerant, they had been.

fuissem

fuisses

fuisset

fuissēmus

fuissētis

fuissent

#### Future Perfect.

Sing. I. fuero, I shall have been. Plur. I. fuerimus, we shall have been.

2. fueris, you will have been. 2. fueritis, you will have been.

3. fuerit, he will have been. 3. fuerint, they will have been.

## IMPERATIVE.

Present. Sing. 2. es, be thou. Plur. 2. este, be ye.

Future.

2. estote, ye shall be. 2. estote, ye shall be.

3. esto, he shall be.

3. sunto, they shall be.

## INFINITIVE.

Present. esse, to be.

Perfect. fuisse, to have been.

Future, fore or futurus esse, to be about to be.

#### PARTICIPLE.

### Future. futurus, -a, -um, about to be.

- a. The present participle appears in ab-sēns, prae-sēns; and as ēns in pot-ēns.
  - b. For essem, etc., forem, fores, etc., are often used.
- 120. The verb sum appears in numerous compounds, which are treated under Irregular Verbs (§ 137)

#### The Three Stems.

- 121. The parts of the Latin verb are formed upon three different stems (partly real and partly supposed), called the Present, the Perfect, and the Supine Stem.
- a. The tenses of continued action, both active and passive, together with the Gerund and Gerundive, are formed upon the PRESENT STEM, and collectively are called the Present System.
- b. The tenses of completed action in the active voice are formed upon the Perfect Stem, and are called the Perfect System.
- c. The Perfect and Future Participles and the Supine are formed upon the SUPINE STEM, and are called the Supine System.

#### V. REGULAR VERBS.

- 122. There are four regular forms of Present Stems ending respectively in a-, e-, e-, i-. With this difference most other differences of conjugation coincide.
- a. Verbs are accordingly classed in Four Regular Conjugations, distinguished by the stem-vowel which appears before -re in the Present Infinitive Active.
- b. The PRINCIPAL PARTS of a verb, which determine its conjugation throughout, are
  - 1. The Present Indicative ) showing the present stem and
  - 2. The Present Infinitive \ the conjugation.
  - 3. The Perfect Indicative, showing the perfect stem.
  - 4. The Supine, showing the supine stem.

c. The regular forms of the conjugations are seen in the following:

First: Active, amo, amare, amavi, amatum, love.

Passive, amor, amārī, amātus.

Present stem ama-, Perfect stem amav-, Supine stem amat-.

Second : Active, dēleō, dēlēre, dēlēvi, dēlētum, blot out.

Passive, dēleor, dēlēri, dēlētus.

Present stem dele-, Perfect stem delev-, Supine stem delet-.

Third: Active, tego, tegere, texi, tectum, cover.

Passive, tegor, tegi, tectus.

ROOT TEG, Present stem tegě-, Perfect stem tex-, Supine stem tect-.

Fourth: Active, audiō, audire, audivī, audītum, hear.

Passive, audior, audīrī, audītus.

Present stem audī-, Perfect stem audīv-, Supine stem audīt-.

In the Second conjugation, the characteristic e- rarely appears in the perfect and supine: the type of this conjugation is, therefore—

Second : Active, moneō, monēre, monuī, monitum, warn.

Passive, moneor, monērī, monitus.

- d. In many verbs the principal parts take forms belonging to two or more different conjugations: as,—
  - I, 2, domo, domare, domui, domitum, subdue.
  - 2, 3, maneō, manēre, mānsī, mānsum, remain.
  - 3, 4, petō, petĕre, petīvī, petītum, seek.
  - 4, 3, vinciō, vincire, vinxī, vinctum, bind.

Such verbs are referred to the conjugation to which the Present stem conforms.

#### r. Present Stem.

123. The Present Stem is formed from the Root in regular verbs in several ways, as appears in dictionaries.

#### 2. Perfect Stem.

## 124. The Perfect Stem is formed as follows:—

a. The suffix v (u) is added to the present stem: as, vocā-v-ī, audī-v-ī; or to the root: as, son-u-ī (son-āre), mon-u-ī (mon-ēre, mon treated as a root).

Note. — In a few verbs the vowel of the root is transposed and lengthened (see  $\S 9$ . d): as, strā-v-ī (ster-nō), sprē-v-ī (sper-nō).

- b. The suffix s is added to the root: as, carp-s-i (carp-ō), tex-i (for teg-s-i, teg-ō).
- c. The root is reduplicated by prefixing the first consonant generally with e, sometimes with the root-vowel: as, ce-cid-i (cad-o), to-tond-i (tond-eo).

NOTE. — In fid-ī (for † fe-fid-ī, find-ō), scid-ī (for † sci-scid-ī, scindō), the reduplication has been lost, leaving merely the root.

- d. The root-vowel is lengthened : as, eg-i (ag-o), fug-i (fug-i-o).
- e. The root itself is used as the perfect stem: as, vert-ī (vert-ō), solv-ī (solv-ō, solv treated as a root).
- f. Sometimes the perfect is formed from a lost or imaginary stem: as, petī-v-ī (as if from † peti-ō, † petī-re, pet-ō).

#### 3. Supine Stem.

- 125. The Supine Stem is formed by adding t- (or, by a phonetic change, s-):
  - a. To the present stem: as, amā-t-um, dēlē-t-um, audī-t-um.
- b. To the root, with or without i: cap-t-um (cap-io), moni-t-um (mon-eo, mon treated as a root), cas-um (for cad-t-um).
  - 126. Omitted in this edition.

## 4. Synopsis of the Verb.

127. The following synopsis shows the forms of the verbs arranged according to the several stems. Amō, a regular verb of the first conjugation, is taken as a type.

PRESENT STEM, ama-; PERFECT STEM, amav-; SUPINE STEM, amat-.

- 1		PRES.	IMPERF.	FUT.	PERF.	PLUPERF.	FUT. PER
	IND.	amō	amā-ban	am <b>ā-bō</b>	am <b>āv-</b> ī	am <b>āv-eram</b>	am <b>āv-er</b>
Dr.	SUB.	ame-m	amā-rem		am <b>āv-erim</b>	am <b>āv-issem</b>	
ACTIVE.	IMP. 2.	amā		am <b>ā-tō</b>			
AC	INF.	am <b>ā-re</b>		amāt-ūrus	am <b>āv-isse</b>		
				esse			• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
ĺ	PART.	am <b>ā-ne</b>		am <b>ā</b> t- <b>ū</b> rus			
	IND.	am-or	amā-bar	amā-bor	amāt-us sur	n eram	erō
rvå.	SUB.	ame-r	am <b>ā-rer</b>		am <b>āt-us sin</b>	ı — essem	
PASSIVE.	IMP. 2.	am <b>ā-r</b> e		am <b>ā-tor</b>			
PAS	INF.	am <b>ā-rī</b>		am <b>ā-tum īri</b>	am <b>āt-us ess</b>	е	
	PART.		Ger	am <b>a-ndus</b>	amāt-us		

- 128. Special Forms.—a. In tenses formed upon the perfect stem, v between two vowels is often lost. Thus,—
- I. Perfects in -āvī, -ēvī, -ōvī often contract the two vowels into ā, ē, ō respectively: as, amāsse for amāvisse; amārim for amāverim; consuērat for consuēverat; flēstis for flēvistis. So where the v is a part of the present stem: as, commorat for commoverat.
- 2. Perfects in -īvī regularly omit v, but rarely contract the vowels except before st and ss: as, audieram for audīveram; audīsse for audīvisse; audīstī for audīvistī; abiit for abīvit.
- b. In many forms from the perfect stem, is, iss, sis are lost in like manner when s would be repeated: as,  $d\bar{x}$  for  $d\bar{x}$  for  $d\bar{x}$  is  $\bar{x} = cs$ .
- c. Four verbs, dīcō, dūcō, faciō, ferō, with their compounds, drop the vowel-termination in the imperative, making dīc, dūc, fǎc, fěr; but compounds in -ficiō retain it: as, cōnfice (cōn-ficio).
- d. For the imperative of sciō, the future form scitō is always used in the singular, and scitōte usually in the plural.
  - e. The following ancient forms are chiefly found in poetry: -
  - I. In the fourth conjugation -ībam, -ībō for -iēbam, -iam (future).
  - 2. In the present subjunctive -im: as in duim (for dem).
- 3. In the perfect subjunctive and future perfect -sim, -sō: as, faxim, faxō (=fēcerō, etc.); ausim (=ausus sim).
  - 4. In the passive infinitive -ier: as, irier for iri; agier for agi.

## FIRST CONJUGATION. - ACTIVE VOICE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: Pres. amō, Infin. amāre, Perf. amāvi, Supine amātum.

INDICATIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

#### Present.

amō, I love.

amās, thou lovest (you love).

amat, he (she, it) loves.

amāmus, we love.

amātis, you love.

amant, they love.

amēs
amet
amēmus
amētis
ament

amem

#### Imperfect.

amābam, I loved. amābās, you loved. amābat, he loved. amābāmus, we loved. amābātis, you loved. amābant, they loved. amārem amārēs amāret amārēmus amārētis amārent

#### Future.

amābō, I shall love. amābis, you will love. amābit, he will love. amābimus, we shall love. amābitis, you will love. amābunt, they will love.

## Perfect.

amāvī, I loved.
amāvīstī, you loved.
amāvīst, he loved.
amāvīstis, you loved.
amāvīstis, you loved.
amāvērunt (-ēre), they loved.

amāverim amāveris amāverit amāverimus amāveritis amāverint

#### INDICATIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE. Pluperfect.

amāveram, I had loved. amāverās, you had loved. amāverat, he had loved. amāverāmus, we had loved. amāverātis, you had loved.

amaverant, they had loved.

amāvissem amāvissēs amāvisset amāvissēmus amāvissētis amāvissent

#### Future Perfect.

#### SINGULAR.

amāverō, I shall have loved. amāveris, you will have loved. amāverit, he will have loved.

#### PLURAL.

amāveritis, you will have loved. amāveritis, you will have loved. amāverint, they will have loved.

#### IMPERATIVE.

Pres. 2. ama, love thou.

amate, love ye.

Fut. 2. amato, thou shalt love.

amātote, ye shall love.

3. amātō, he shall love.

amanto, they shall love.

#### INFINITIVE.

Present. amare, to love.

Perfect. amavisse or amasse, to have loved.

Future. amaturus esse, to be about to love.

## PARTICIPLES.

Present. amans,-antis, loving.

Future. amaturus, -a, -um, about to love.

## GERUND.

GEN. amandi, of loving.

Acc. amandum, loving.

DAT. amando, for loving. ABL. amando, by loving.

#### SUPINE.

Former. amatum Latter. amatu, to love.

129. The so-called Periphrastic conjugations are formed by combining the tenses of esse with the Future Active Participle and with the Gerundive: as,—

amabantur, they were loved.

First Periphrast	ic Conjugation.				
INDICATIVE.	Subjunctive.				
Present. amaturus sum, I am ab	out to love sim				
Imperf. amātūrus eram, I was	about to love. — essem				
Future. amātūrus ero, I shall be	e about to love.				
Perfect. amātūrus fui, I was abo	out, etc fuerim				
Pluperf. amātūrus fueram, I had	been about, etc fuissem				
Fut. Perf. amātūrus fuero, I shall					
Infinitive: Pres. amātūrus	esse Perf. amātūrus fuisse				
Second Periphras	atic Conjugation.				
Indicative.	SUBJUNCTIVE.				
Present. amandus sum, I am to	be loved sim				
Imperf. amandus eram, I was t	o be loved. — essem				
Imperf. amandus eram, I was t Future. amandus ero, I shall b	e [worthy] to be loved.				
Perfect. amandus fui, I was to be loved. — fuer.					
Pluperf. amandus fueram, I had been, etc.					
	Fut. Perf. amandus fuero, I shall have been, etc.				
INFINITIVE: Pres. amandus esse Perf. amandus fuisse					
FIRST CONJUGATION	PASSIVE VOICE.				
PRINCIPAL PARTS: Pres. amor	, Infin. amārī, Perf. amātus sum				
INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.				
Pres	ent.				
amor, I am loved.	amer				
amaris (-re), you are loved.	am <b>ēris</b> (-re)				
amātur, he is loved.	am <b>ētur</b>				
amamur, we are loved.	am <b>ēmur</b>				
amāminī, you are loved.	am <b>ēminī</b>				
amantur, they are loved.	amentur				
Imperfect.					
amābar, I was loved.	am <b>ārer</b>				
amābāris (-re), you were loved.	am <b>ārēris</b> (-re)				
amābātur, he was loved.	am <b>ārētur</b>				
amābāmur, we were loved.	am <b>ārēmur</b>				
amābāminī, you were loved.	am <b>ārēminī</b>				

amärentur

Future.

#### INDICATIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

amabor, I shall be loved. amaberis (-re), you will be loved. amabitur, he will be loved. amabimur, we shall be loved. amābimini, vou will be loved. amabuntur, they will be loved.

#### Perfect.

amātus sum. I was loved. amātus es, vou were loved. amātus est, he was loved. amātī sumus, we were loved. amātī estis, you were loved. amātī sunt, they were loved.

amātus sim amātus sīs amātus sit amātī simus amātī sītis amātī sint

#### Pluperfect.

amātus eram. I had been loved. amātus erās, you had been loved. amātus erat, he had been loved. amātī erāmus, we had been loved. amātī erātis, you had been loved. amātī erant, they had been loved. amātus essem amātus essēs amātus esset amātī essēmus amātī essētis amātī essent

## Future Perfect.

SINGULAR.

amātus ero, I shall have been loved. amātus eris, you will have, etc. amātus erit, he will have, etc.

PLURAL.

amātī erimus, we shall have, etc. amātī eritis, you will have, etc. amātī erunt, they will have, etc.

#### IMPERATIVE.

Pres. 2. amare, be thou loved.

Fut. 2. amator, thou shalt be loved.

amamini, be ye loved.

3. amator, he shall be loved. amantor, they shall be loved.

#### INFINITIVE.

Present. amari, to be loved.

Perfect. amatus esse, to have been loved.

Future. amatum iri (amatus fore), to be about to be loved.

#### PARTICIPLES.

Perfect. amatus, loved (beloved, or having been loved).

Future. (Gerundive.) amandus, -a, -um, to-be-loved (lovely).

130. There are about 360 simple verbs of this conjugation, most of them formed directly on a noun- or adjective-stem: as, armo, arm (arma, arms); caeco, to blind (caecus, blind); exsulo, be an exile (exsul, an exile) (§ 166. a). Their conjugation is usually regular, like amo; though of many only a few forms are found in use.

#### SECOND CONJUGATION.

Principal Parts: Active, moneō, monēre, monuī, monitum; Passive, moneor, monērī, monitus sum.

PASSIVE.

SUBI.

monear

INDIC.

moneor

ACTIVE.

INDIC.

moneo. I warn.

monebo

monebis

monebit

monēbimus

monebitis

monebunt

SUBJ.

moneam

monës, you warn.	. moneās	monēris (-re)	moneāris(-re)
monet, he warns.	moneat	monētur	moneātur
monēmus	mon <b>eāmus</b>	mon <b>ēmur</b>	mon <b>eāmur</b>
monētis	mon <b>eātis</b>	mon <b>ēminī</b>	mon <b>eāminī</b>
monent	moneant	monentur	mon <b>eantur</b>
	Impe	rfect.	
mon <b>ēbam</b>	mon <b>ērem</b>	mon <b>ēbar</b>	mon <b>ērer</b>
mon <b>ēbās</b>	mon <b>ērēs</b>	mon <b>ēbāris</b> (-re)	monērēris (-re)
monebat	mon <b>ēret</b>	mon <b>ēbātur</b>	mon <b>ērētur</b>
monēbāmus	mon <b>ērēmus</b>	mon <b>ēbāmur</b>	mon <b>ërëmu</b> r
monēbātis	mon <b>ērētis</b>	mon <b>ēbāminī</b>	mon <b>ērēminī</b>
monebant	monerent	monebantur	monerentur

Future.

monebor

monebitur

monēbimur

mon**ēbimin**ī

monēbuntur

monēberis (-re)

ACT	IVE.	- 1
AUI.	LVE	

PASSIVE. INDIC. SUBI. SUBJ. INDIC.

Perfect. monui monuerim monitus sum monitus sim monuisti monueris monitus es monitus sis monuit monuerit monitus est monitus git monuimus monuerimus moniti sumus monitī sīmus moniti sītis monuistis monueritis moniti estis monuerunt (-re) monuerint moniti sunt moniti sint

#### Pluperfect.

monitus essem monuissem monitus eram monueram monitus erās monitus esses monuerās monuisses monuerat monitus erat monitus esset. monuisset. monueramus moniti eramus moniti essemus monuissemus moniti essetis monuerātis monuissetis moniti erātis monitī erant monitī essent monuerant monuissent

#### Future -Perfect.

monuero monitus ero monueria monitus eris monitus erit monuerit. moniti erimus monuerimus monueritie moniti eritis monuerint moniti erunt

#### IMPERATIVE.

SING. PLUR. SING. PLUR. Pres. 2. mone monēte monere monēmini Fut. 2. moneto monetote monetor 3. monētō monento monetor monentor

#### INFINITIVE.

Pres. monere moneri monitus esse Perf. monuisse monitum īrī (monitus fore) Fut. moniturus esse

#### PARTICIPLES.

Pres. monens Perf. monitus Fut. moniturus Ger. monendus

GERUND: monendi, -do, -dum, -do Supine: monitum, monitum

131. There are nearly 120 simple verbs of this conjugation, most of them denominative verbs of *condition*, having a corresponding noun and adjective from the same root, and an inceptive in -scō (§ 167. a): as, caleō, be warm; calor, warmth; calidus, warm; calēscō, grow warm; timeō, fear; timor, fear; timidus, timid.

Most verbs of this conjugation form their perfect and supine like moneo. The following have -evi and -etum: deleo, destroy; fleo, weep; neo, spin; vieo, plat; and compounds of -pleo, fill; -oleo, grow.

#### THIRD CONJUGATION.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: Active, tegō, tegĕre, tēxī, tēctum;

Passive, tegor, tegī, tēctus sum.

Passive, tegor, tegi, tectus sum.				
ACTI	VE.	PASSIVE.		
INDIC.	SUBJ.	INDIC.	Subj.	
	Pre	sent.		
tego, I cover.	tegam	tegor	tegar	
tegis, you cover.	tegās	tegeris(-re)	tegāris (-re)	
tegit, he covers.	tegat	tegitur	tegātur	
tegimus	tegāmus	tegimur	tegāmur	
tegitis	teg <b>ātis</b>	tegiminī	tegāminī	
tegunt	tegant	teguntur	tegantur	
	Imp	erfect.		
tegebam	tegerem	tegebar	tegerer	
tegēbās	teg <b>erēs</b>	tegēbāris (-re)	tegerēris (-re)	
tegebat	tegeret	teg <b>ēbātur</b>	tegerētur	
tegēbāmus	tegerēmus	tegebamur	tegerēmur	
tegēbātis	tegerētis	teg <b>ēbāminī</b>	tegerēminī	
tegebant	tegerent	tegebantur	tegerentur	
	Fu	ture.		
tegam		tegar		
tegēs		tegēris (-re)		

tegetur

teg**ēm**ur teg**ēmi**nī

tegentur

teget

tegēmus

tegētis

tegent

ACT	IVE.	PASSIVE.	
INDIC.	Subj.	INDIC.	Subj.
	Per	fect.	
tēxī	tëxerim	tēctus sum	tēctus <b>sim</b>
tēx <b>istī</b>	tēx <b>eris</b>	tēctus <b>es</b>	tēctus sīs
tēxit	tēx <b>erit</b>	tēctus est	tēctus <b>sit</b>
tēximus	tēxerimus	tēctī sumus	tēctī <b>sīmus</b>
tēxistis	tēxeritis	tēctī estis	tēctī <b>sītis</b>
tēxērunt (-re)	tēxerint	tēctī <b>sunt</b>	tēctī sint
	Plup	erfect.	
tēxeram	tēxissem	tēctus <b>eram</b>	tēctus <b>essem</b>
tēxerās	tēx <b>issēs</b>	tēctus <b>erās</b>	tēctus essēs
tēxerat	tēxisset	tēctus <b>erat</b>	tēctus <b>esset</b>
tēxerāmus	tēxi <b>ssē</b> mus	tēctī <b>erāmus</b>	tēctī essēmus
tēx <b>erātis</b>	tēxissētis	tēctī <b>erātis</b>	tēctī essētis
tēxerant	tēxissent	tēctī erant	tēctī <b>essent</b>
	Future	Perfect.	
tēx <b>erō</b>		tēctus <b>erō</b>	
tēveris		tectus eris	

tēx <b>erō</b>	tēctus erō
tēxeris	.tēctus eris
tēxerit	tēctus <b>erit</b>
tëxerimus	tēctī erimus
tēxeritis	tēctī eritis
tēxerint	tēctī erunt

## IMPERATIVE.

SING.	PLUR.	SING.	PLUR.
Pres. 2. tege, cov	er. tegite	tegere	tegiminī
Fut. 2. tegito	tegitöte	tegitor	
3. tegitō	teguntō	tegitor	teguntor

## INFINITIVE.

Pres. tegere	tegī
Perf. tëxisse	tēctus esse
Fut. tēctūrus esse	tēctum īrī (tēctus fore)

## PARTICIPLES.

Pres. tegens	Perf. tectus
Fut. tēctūrus	Ger. tegendus (-undus)

GERUND: tegendī, -dō, -dum, -dō SUPINE: tēctum, tēctū

#### VERBS IN -IO.

Verbs of the third conjugation in -io have certain forms of the present stem like the fourth conjugation. They retain the i of the stem before a, o, u, and e, but lose it elsewhere except in the future and in the participle and gerund. They are conjugated as follows :-

# PRINCIPAL PARTS: capio. capere. cepi. captum:

TRINCIPAL TARTS. Capito, Capeto, Cept, Captum,				
capior, capī, captus sum.  ACTIVE. PASSIVE.				
ACTIVE.		Indic.		
Indic.	Subj.		Subj.	
		esent.		
capio, I take.	capiam	capior	capiar	
capis, you take.	cap <b>iās</b>	caperis (-re)	capiāris (-re)	
capit, he takes.	capiat	capitur	cap <b>iātur</b>	
capimus	capi <b>āmus</b>	capimur	cap <b>iāmur</b>	
capitis	cap <b>iātis</b>	capimini	cap <b>iāminī</b>	
capiunt	cap <b>iant</b>	capiuntur	capiantur	
	Immo	rfect.		
cap <b>iēbam</b>	caperem	capiebar	caperer	
capiebani	caperein	Capiedai	caperer	
	Fu	ture.	•	
cap <b>iam</b>	*	capiar		
capies		capieris (-re)		
capiet, etc.		capiētur, etc.		
Perfect.				
0000				
cēpī	cēp <b>eri</b> m	captus sum	captus sim	
	Plup	erfect.		
cēp <b>eram</b>	cēp <b>issem</b>	captus eram	captus essem	
	Future	Perfect.		
cēp <b>erō</b>	•	captus erō		
Imperative.				
SING.	PLUR.	SING.	PLUR.	
Pres. 2. cape	capite	capere	capiminī	
Fut. 2. capito	capitote	capitor		
3. capitō	capiunto	capitor	capiuntor	

#### INFINITIVE.

SING.

PLUR.

Pres. capere

capī

Perf. cepisse Fut. capturus esse captus esse captum īrī

#### PARTICIPLES.

Pres. capiens Fut. capturus Perf. captus Ger. capiendus

GERUND: capiendi, -do, -dum, -do SUPINE: captum, -tū

132. List of verbs omitted in this edition, see larger grammar.

#### FOURTH CONJUGATION.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: Active, audio, audire, audivi, auditum: Passive, audior, audiri, auditus sum.

#### ACTIVE.

SUBI.

#### PASSIVE.

SUBJ.

audiāmur

audirer

audio. I hear. audiam audīs, vou hear. audiās audit. he hears. audiat andimus audiāmus

INDIC.

Present. audior audiar audiāris (-re) audīris (-re) audītur audiātur

audītis audiātis audiunt audiant

audimini audiāminī audiuntur audiantur

audiebam audirem audiebas audirēs audiebat audiret

audiēbāris (-re) audiebatur audiebamur

INDIC.

audimur

audiebar

audīrēris (-re) audirētur

audirēmur

audiēbāmus audīrēmus audiebātis audīrētis audirent audiebant

audirëmini audiebamini audiebantur audirentur

#### Future.

Imperfect.

audies audiet audiēmus audiētis audient

audiam

audiar audieris (-re) audietur audiēmur audi**ēmin**ī

audientur

ACTIV	E	
-------	---	--

#### PASSIVE.

INDIC.	Subj.		INDIC.	Subj.
		Per	fect.	
audīvi	audīv <b>erim</b>		audītus <b>sum</b>	audītus <b>sim</b>
audīvistī	audīv <b>eris</b>		audītus <b>es</b>	audītus sīs
audīvit	audīv <b>erit</b>		audītus <b>est</b>	audītus sit
audīv <b>imus</b>	audīv <b>erimus</b>		audītī <b>sumus</b>	audītī <b>sīmus</b>
audīv <b>istis</b>	audīv <b>eritis</b>		audītī estis	audītī s <b>ītis</b>
audīvērunt (-re)	audiverint		audītī sunt	audītī sint

Pluperject.				
audīveram	audīv <b>issem</b>	audītus eram	audītus <b>essem</b>	
audīverās	audīv <b>issēs</b>	audītus erās	audītus essēs	
audīverat	audīv <b>isset</b>	audītus erat	audītus esset	
audīv <b>erāmus</b>	audīv <b>issēmus</b>	audītī <b>erāmus</b>	audītī <b>essēmus</b>	
audīv <b>erātis</b>	audīv <b>issētis</b>	audītī <b>erātis</b>	audītī essētis	
audīv <b>erant</b>	audīvissent	audītī erant	audītī essent	

Future Perfect.

audīverō	audītus erō
audīveris	audītus <b>eris</b>
audīverit	audītus erit
audīv <b>erimus</b>	audītī erimus
audīveritis	audītī <b>eritis</b>
audīverint	audītī erunt

## IMPERATIVE.

	SING.	PLUR.	SING.	PLUR.
Pres	2. audī	audite	audīre	audīminī
Fut.	2. audītō	audītōte	auditor	
	3. audītō	audiunto	auditor	audiuntor

## INFINITIVE.

Pres. audire	aud <b>īrī</b>
Perf. audivisse	audītus esse
Fut. audītūrus esse	audītum īrī (audītus fore)

## PARTICIPLES.

Pres.	audiēns	Perf.	auditus
Fut.	audītūrus	Ger.	audiendus

GERUND: audiendi, -do, -dum, -do Supine: auditum, auditū

133. There are — besides a few deponents and some regular derivatives in -ŭriō, as ēsuriō, be hungry (cf. § 167. e) — about 60 verbs of this conjugation, a large proportion of them being descriptive verbs.

#### Parallel Forms.

134. Many verbs have more than one set of forms, of which only one is generally found in classic use: as, — lavo, lavore or lavore, wash.

#### DEPONENT VERBS.

135. Deponent Verbs have the form of the Passive Voice, with an active or reflexive signification: as,—

1st conj. miror, mirāri, mirātus, admire. 2d conj. vereor, verēri, veritus, fear. 3d conj. sequor, sequi, secūtūs, follow. 4th conj. partior, partīri, partītus, share.

## INDICATIVE.

	I.	·/ · II.	III.	IV.
Pres.	miror	vereor	sequor	partior
/	mīr <b>āris</b> (-re)	verēris (-re)	sequeris (-re)	partîris (-re)
	mīr <b>ātur</b>	verētur	sequitur	partītur
	mīr <b>āmur</b>	ver <b>ëmur</b>	sequimur	partimur
	mīr <b>āminī</b>	ver <b>ēminī</b>	sequimini	part <b>īminī</b>
	mīrantur	verentur	secuntur	partiuntur
Impf	mīr <b>ābar</b>	ver <b>ēbar</b>	sequ <b>ēbar</b>	parti <b>ēbar</b>
	mīr <b>ābor</b>	ver <b>ēbor</b>	sequar	partiar
Perf.	mīr <b>ātus sum</b>	veritus sum	secutus sum	partītus sum
Plup.	mīr <b>ātus eram</b>	veritus eram	secutus eram	partītus eram
F. P.	mīrātus erō	veritus erō	sec <del>ūtus er</del> ō	partītus erō

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. mirer	verear	sequar	partiar
Impf. mīrārer	ver <b>ērer</b>	sequerer	partirer
Perf. mīrātus	sim veritus sim	secutus sim	partītus sim
Plup. mīrātus	essem veritus essem	sec <del>utus essem</del>	partītus essem

## IMPERATIVE.

I. III. IV.

## mīrāre, -ātor, etc. verēre, -ētor sequere, -itor partire, -itor

#### INFINITIVE.

Pres.	mīr <b>ārī</b>	ver <b>ēr</b> ī	sequi	partiri
Perf.	mīr <b>ātus esse</b>	veritus esse	secutus esse	partītus esse
Fut.	mīrātūrus esse	veritūrus esse	secuturus esse	partitūrus esse

#### PARTICIPLES.

Pres.	mīrāns	ver <b>ens</b>	sequ <b>ens</b>	parti <b>ēns</b>
Fut.	mīr <b>ātūrus</b>	veritūrus	secuturus	part <b>itūrus</b>
Perf.	mīr <b>ātus</b>	veritus	secutus	partītus
Ger.	mirandus	verendus	sequendus	partiendus

#### GERUND.

mīrandī, -ō, etc. verendī, etc. sequendī, etc. partiendī, etc.

#### SUPINE.

mīrātum, -tū veritum, -tū secūtum, -tū partītum, -tū

- a. Deponents have the participles of both voices: as,—

  sequēns, following.

  secūtūrus, about to follow.

  secūtus, having followed.

  sequendus, to-be-followed.
- b. The perfect participle generally has an active sense, but in verbs otherwise deponent it is often passive: as, mercātus, bought; adeptus, gained (or having gained).
- c. The future infinitive is always in the active form: thus, sequor has secuturus esse (not secutum iri).
- d. The gerundive, being passive in meaning, is found only in transitive verbs, or neuter verbs used impersonally: as,—

hoc confitendum est, this must be acknowledged. moriendum est omnibus, all must die.

- e. Most deponents are neuter or reflexive in meaning.
- f. Some deponents are occasionally used in a passive sense: as, criminor, I accuse, or I am accused.
- g. About twenty verbs are, with an active meaning, found in both active and passive forms: as, mereo or mereor, I deserve.
- h. More than half of all deponents are of the First Conjugation, and all of these are regular.

#### Semi-Deponents.

136. A few verbs having no perfect stem are regular in the present, but appear in the tenses of completed action as deponents. These are called *semi-deponents* or neuter passives. They are—

audeō, audēre, ausus, *dare*. gaudeō, gaudēre, gāvīsus, *rejoice*. fidō, fidĕre, fisus, *trust*. soleō, solēre, solitus, *be wont*.

#### IRREGULAR VERBS.

137. Several verbs add some of the personal endings of the present system directly to the root, or combine two verbs in their inflection. These are called Irregular Verbs. They are sum, volō, ferō, edō, queō, eō, fiō, and their compounds.

Sum has already been inflected in § 119.

a. Sum is compounded without any change of inflection with the prepositions ab, ad, de, in, inter, ob, prae, pro (prod), sub, super.

In the compound prosum, pro retains its original d before e. Thus, —

	INDIC.	Subj.
Pres.	prosum, I help.	prosim
	prodes	prosis
	prodest	prosit
	prosumus	prosimus
	prodestis	prösitis
	prosunt	prosint
Impf.	proderam, I was helping.	prodessem
Fut.	prodero, I shall help.	
Perf.	profui, I helped.	profuerim
Plup.	profueram, I had helped.	profuissem
F. P.	profuero, I shall have help	bed.

IMPER. prodesto, etc.

Infin. Pres. prodesse Perf. profuisse Fut. profuturus esse Part. profuturus, about to helb.

b. Sum is also compounded with the adjective potis, or pote, able, making the verb possum. This is inflected as follows: -

INDICATIVE. SUBJUNCTIVE. possum. I can. possim potes, you can. possis potest, he can. possit possimus possumus, we can. potestis, you can. possītis possunt, they can. possint Impf. poteram, I could. possem Fut. potero, I shall be able. Perf. potui, I could. potuerim Plup. potueram potuissem F. P. potuero, I shall have been able. INFIN. Pres. posse Perf. potuisse PART. potens (adj.), powerful.

138. Volo and its compounds are inflected as follows:

( volo, velle, volui, wish

nolo (for ne volo), nolle, nolui, be unwilling.

mālō ( for magis or mage volō), mālle, māluī, wish rather, prefer.

1.1							
INDIC.	Subj.	INDIC.	Subj.	INDIC.	Subj.		
volō	velim	nōlō	nölim	mālō	mālim		
vīs	velis	nōnvis	nölis	māvis	mālis		
volt (vult)	velit	nonvolt	nölit	māvolt	mālit		
volumus	velimus	nolumus	nölimus	mālumus	mālīmus		
voltis(vul-)	velītis	nonvultis	nolitis	māvultis	mālītis		
volunt	velint	nolunt	nölint	mālunt	mälint		
		Impe	rfect.				
volēbam	vellem	nölēbam	nöllem	mālēbam	mällem		
Future.							
volam, volē	s, etc.	nolam, noles, etc.		mālam, m	ālēs, etc.		

Perfect.

volui voluerim nolui nöluerim mälui māluerim Pluperfect.

voluissem nõlueram nõluissem malueram maluissem volueram

Future Perfect.

voluero noluero maluero

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. noli nolite, do not.

Fut. nolito nolitote, thou shalt not, ye shall not.

nolito

INFINITIVE.

velle voluisse nolle noluisse malle maluisse

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. volens, willing. nolens, unwilling.

GERUND: volendi (late)

139. Fero, ferre, tuli, latum, bear.

ACTIVE. PASSIVE.

INDIC. INDIC. SUBJ. SUBJ. Pres. fero feror ferar feram fers feras ferris ferāris (-re) fert ferat fertur ferātur ferimus ferāmus ferāmur ferimur fertis feratis ferimini ferāminī ferunt ferant feruntur ferantur

Impf. ferebam ferrem ferebar ferrer

Fut. feram ferar

 Perf.
 tŭli
 tulerim
 lātus sum
 lātus sim

 Plup.
 tuleram
 tulissem
 lātus eram
 lātus essem

F. P. tulero lātus ero

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. fer ferte ferre ferimini

Fut, ferto fertote fertor fertor fertor fertor fertor fertor fertor fertor

INFINITIVE.

Pres. ferre | ferri

Perf. tulisse lātus esse

Fut. lātūrus esse lātum īrī (lātus fore)

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. ferens Perf. lātus Fut. lātūrus Ger. ferendus

Gerund: ferendi, -do, -dum, -do Supine: latum, -tu

140. Edő, edere, edi, esum, eat, is regular of the third conjugation, but has also some forms directly from the root (ED) without the characteristic vowel. These are in full-faced type.

characteristic vowei. These are in fun-faced type.							
	ACTIVE.	PASSIVE.					
INDIC.	Subj.	INDIC. SUBJ.					
. 1=	edam (edim) edor edar						
edō	edam (edim)	edor					
edis (ēs)	edās (edīs)		edāris (-re)				
edit (est)	edat (edit)	editur (est	*				
edimus	edāmus (edīmus)	edimur	edāmur				
editis (ēstis)	, ,	ediminī	edāminī				
edunt	edant (edint)	eduntur	edantur				
	-	erfect.					
edēbam	` '	edēbar					
edēbās	ederēs (ēssēs)	edēbāris (-	re) ederēris (-re)				
edēbat	ederet (esset)	edēbātur	ederētur (ēssētur)				
	Fut	ure.					
edam		edar					
edēs		edēris					
edet, etc.		edētur, etc.					
	Per	fect.					
ēdī	ēderim	ēsus sum	ēsus sim				
	Plupe	erfect.					
ēderam	ēdissem	ēsus eram	ēsus essem				
	Future	Perfect.					
ēderō		ēsus erō					
	IMPER	RATIVE.					
ede (ēs)	edite (este)	edere	ediminī				
editō (ēstō)	editōte (ēstōte)	editor					
editō (ēstō)	eduntō	editor .	eduntor				
	Infin	ITIVE.					
edere (esse)		edī					
ēdisse		ēsus esse					
ēsūrus esse		ēsum īrī					
	PARTIC	CIPLES.					
Pres.	edēns	Perf.	ēsus				
Fut.	ēsūrus		edendus				
		,					
GERUND: edendī, -dō, -dum, -dō SUPINE: ēsum, -sū							

41. Eō, īre, īvī, ĭtum, go.

INDICATIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

eō. is. it Pres. S.

P. imus, itis, eunt

ībam, ībās, ībat Imberf.

ībāmus, ībātis, ībant

ībō, ībis, ībit Future.

ībimus, ībitis, ībunt Perfect. ivi (ii)

Pluperf. iveram (ieram)

Fut. Perf. ivero (iero)

eam, eas, eat

eāmus, eātis, eant

īrem, īrēs, īret īrēmus, īrētis, īrent

iverim (ierim)

ivissem (issem)

IMPERATIVE.

i, ite, itō, itō, itōte, euntō

INFINITIVE.

Pres. ire

Perf. ivisse( isse)

Fut. iturus esse

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. iens, euntis Fut. iturus Ger, eundum

GERUND: eundi, -do, -dum, -do SUPINE: itum, itu

a. The compounds adeo, approach, ineo, enter, and some others, are transitive. They are inflected as follows in the passive: -

#### INDICATIVE.

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres.	adeor	Impf.	adībar			Pres. a	dear
	adīris	Fut.	adībor			Impf. a	direr
	adītur	Perf.	aditus	sum		Perf. a	ditus sim
	adimur	Plup.	aditus	eram		Plup. a	ditus essem
	adimini	F. P.	aditus	erō	INFIN.	adiri,	aditus esse
	adeuntur				PART.	aditus	adeundus

Thus inflected, the forms of eo are used impersonally in the third person singular of the passive: as, itum est (§ 146. d). The infinitive īrī is used with the supine in -um to make the future infinitive passive (§ 147. c. 1). The verb veneo, be sold (i.e. venum eo, go to sale), has also several forms in the passive.

- b. In the perfect system of eo and its compounds the forms with v are extremely rare.
- c. The compound ambio, inflected regularly like a verb of the fourth conjugation, has also ambibat in the imperfect indicative.
  - d. Pro with eo retains its original d: as, prodeo, prodis, prodit.

142. Facio, facere, feci, factum, make, is regular. But it has imperative fac in the active, and besides the regular forms the future perfect faxo, perfect subjunctive faxim. The passive of facio is —

fio, fieri, factus sum, be made, or become.

The tenses of the first stem of fio are regular of the fourth conjugation, but the subjunctive imperfect is fierem, and the infinitive fieri.

INDICATIVE. SUBJUNCTIVE. Pres. S. fio. fis. fit fiam, fias, fiat P. fimus, fitis, fiunt fiamus, fiatis, fiant Imperf. fiebam, fiebas, etc. fierem, fieres, etc. Future. fiam, fies, etc. Perfect. factus sum factus sim Pluperf. factus eram factus essem Fut. Perf. factus ero fi, fite, fito, fitote, fiunto IMPER. INFIN. Pres. fieri Perf. factus esse Fut. factum īrī PART. Perf. factus Ger. faciendus

a. Most compounds of facio with prepositions change a to i (present stem), or e (supine stem), and are inflected regularly: as,—

conficio, conficere, confect, confectum, finish.

b. Other compounds retain a, and have -fio in the passive: as, benefacio, -facere, -feoi, -factum; pass. benefio, -fieri, -factus, benefit. These retain the accent of the simple verb: as, bene-fă'cis (§ 19. d).

c. A few isolated forms of -fio occur in other compounds: viz., — confit, it happens. defit, it lacks. infit, he begins (to speak).

confiet defiunt infiunt confier defiet effieri, to be effected.

confier defiet interfieri, to perish.

confieri defieri interfiat, let him perish.

#### DEFECTIVE VERBS.

143. Some verbs have lost their Present stem, and use only tenses of the Perfect, in which they are inflected regularly. These are —

a. Coepī, I began; Infin. coepisse; Fut. Part. coeptūrus; Perf.
 Pass. Part. coeptus.

The passive is used with the passive infinitive: as, coeptus sum vocārī, I began to be called, but coepī vocāre, I began to call. For the present incipiō is used.

- b. Odi, I hate; perfect participle osus, hating or hated (perosus, utterly hateful), future participle osurus, likely to hate.
- c. Memini, I remember; with the Imperative memento, mementote; Part. meminons.

Note. —  $\overline{0}$ di and memini have a perfect form with a present meaning, and are called *preteritive verbs*. Novi and consuevi (usually referred to nosco and consuesco) are often used in the sense of I know (have learned), and I am accustomed (have become accustomed), as preteritive verbs. Many other verbs are occasionally used in the same way (see § 279. Remark).

144. Many verbs are found only in the present system. Such are maereo, -ore, be sorrowful (cf. maestus, sad); ferio, -ire, strike.

In many the simple verb is incomplete, but the missing parts occur in its compounds: as, vādō, vādere, invāsī, invāsum.

Some verbs occur very commonly, but only in a few forms: as,—
a. Aio. I say:—

INDIC. Pres. āiō, ais, ait; — — āiunt

Impf. āiēbam (aībam), āiēbās, etc.

Subj. Pres. āiās, āiat, āiant

IMPER. ai

PART. āiens

b. **Inquam**, I say (used only, except in poetry, in direct quotations, like the English quoth, which is possibly from the same root):—

INDIC. Pres. inquam, inquis, inquit inquimus, inquitis (late), inquiunt

Impf. inquiebat

Fut. inquies, -et

Perf. inquisti, inquit

IMPER. inque, inquito

c. The deponent fari, to speak, forms the perfect tenses regularly: as, fatus sum, eram, etc. It has also —

INDIC. Pres. fatur, fantur

Fut. fabor, fabitur

fārī

IMPER. fare

INFIN.

PART. Pres. (dat.) fantī

Perf. fatus, having spoken.

Ger. fandus, to be spoken of.

GER. fandī, -dō Sup. fātū

Several forms compounded with the prepositions ex, prae, pro, inter, occur: as, praefatur, affari, profatus, interfatur, etc. The compound infans is regularly used as a noun (child). Infandus, nefandus, are used as adjectives, unspeakable, abominable.

d. Quaeso, I ask, beg (original form of quaero), has -

INDIC. Pres. quaeso, quaesumus

Infin. quaesere
Part. quaesens

e. Ovare, to triumph, has the following: -

INDIC. Pres. ovat Subl. Pres. ovet

Impf. ovaret

PART. ovāns, ovātūrus, ovātus

GER. ovandi

f. A few verbs are found chiefly in the Imperative: as, -

Pres. sing. salvē, plur. salvēte, hail! (from salvus, safe and sound). An infin. salvēre also occurs.

Pres. sing. avē (or havē), plur. avēte, Fut. avētō, hail or farewell.

Pres. sing. cedo, plur. cedite (cette), give, tell.

Pres. sing. apage! begone! (properly a Greek word).

g. Queō, I can, nequeō, I cannot, are conjugated like eō. They are rarely used except in the present.

INDIC.	Subj.	INDIC.	Subj.				
Present.							
queō	queam	nequeō (non queō)	nequeam				
quis	queās	nonquis	nequeãs				
quit	queat	nequit	nequeat				
quīmus	queāmus	nequimus	nequeāmus				
quitis	queātis	nequitis	nequeātis				
queunt	queant	nequeunt	nequeant				
		Imperfect.					
quibam	quirem	nequibam	nequirem				
quibat	quiret	nequibat	nequiret				
quibant	quirent	nequibant	nequirent				
quibō		Future.					
quibunt		nequibunt					
quibant		noquibuno					
		Perfect.					
quivi		nequivi					
		nequīvistī					
quivit	quiverit	nequivit					
quiverunt		nequiverunt					
Pluperfect.							
-	quissent	, and the second	nequisset				
	I	NFINITIVE.					
quire	quivisse (	quisse) nequire	nequivisse				

#### PARTICIPLES.

quiens, queuntis

nequiens

#### IMPERSONAL VERBS.

145. Many verbs, from their meaning, appear only in the third person singular, the infinitive, and the gerund. These are called Impersonal Verbs, as having no personal subject. Their synopsis may be given as follows:—

Conj. i.	ш.	III.	-IV.	Pass. Conj. 1.
it is plain.	it is allowed.	it chances.	it results.	it is fought.
constat	licet	accidit	ēvenit	pügnātur
constabat	licebat	accidebat	ēveniēbat	pügnābātur
constabit	licebit [est	accidet	eveniet	pugnābitur
constitit	licuit, -itum	accidit	ēvēnit	pūgnātum est
constiterat	licuerat	acciderat	ēvēnerat	pūgnātum erat
constiterit	licuerit	acciderit	ēvēnerit	pūgnātum erit
constet	liceat	accidat	ēveniat	pūgnētur
constaret	liceret	accideret	eveniret	pūgnārētur
constiterit	licuerit	acciderit	ēvēnerit	pūgnātum sit
constitusset	licuisset	accidisset	ēvēnisset	pūgnātum esset
constare	licēre	accidĕre	ëvenire	pūgnārī
constitusse	licuisse	accidisse	ēvēnisse	pūgnātum esse
-stātūrum ess	e -iturum esse	B	-tūrum ess	e pūgnātum īrī

## 146. Impersonal Verbs may be classified as follows:—

a. Verbs expressing the operations of nature and the time of day: as, pluit, it rains; mingit, it snows; grandinat, it hails; fulgurat, it lightens; vesperascit (inceptive, § 167. a), it grows late; luciscit hoc iam, it is getting light now.

NOTE. — In these no subject is distinctly thought of. Sometimes, however, the verb is used personally with the name of a divinity as the subject: as, Iūppiter tonat, Jupiter thunders. In poetry other subjects are occasionally used: as, fundae saxa pluunt, the slings rain stones.

b. Verbs of feeling, where the person who is the proper subject becomes the object, as being himself affected by the feeling expressed in the verb (§ 221. b). Such are miseret, it grieves; paenitet (poenitet), it repents; piget, it disgusts; pudet, it shames; taedet, it wearies: as, miseret mē, I pity (it distresses me).

Note. — Such verbs often have also a passive form: as, misereor, I pity (am moved to pity); and occasionally other parts: as, paenitūrus (as from † paeniō), paenitendus, pudendus, pertaesum est, pigitum est.

c. Verbs which have a phrase or clause as their subject (§§ 270. a, 330, 332. a): as,—

3 147.

accidit, contingit, evenit, obtingit, obvenit, fit, it happens.

libet, it pleases.

delectat, iuvat it delights.

licet, it is permitted.
certum est, it is resolved.

necesse est, oportet, it is needful.

constat, it is clear.
decet, it is becoming.

praestat, it is better. interest, refert, it concerns.

NOTE. — Many of these verbs may be used personally. Libet and licet have also the passive forms libitum (licitum) est, etc. The participles libēns and licēns are used as adjectives.

d. The passive of intransitive verbs is very often used impersonally: as, pugnātur, there is fighting (it is fought); ītur, some one goes (it is gone); parcitur mihi, I am spared (it is spared to me, see § 230).

## Periphrastic Forms.

- 147. The following periphrastic forms are found in the inflection of the verb:
  - a. The so-called "Periphrastic Conjugations" (see § 129).
- b. The tenses of completed action in the passive formed by the tenses of esse with the perfect participle: as, amātus est.
  - c. The future infinitive passive, formed as follows:-
- 1. By the infinitive passive of eo, go, used impersonally with the supine in -um: amātum īrī.
- 2. By fore (or futurum esse), with the perfect participle (as amatus fore).
  - 3. By fore with ut and the subjunctive (cf. § 288. f).

#### NOTE.

# Origin and History of Verb-Forms.

The forms that make up the conjugation of a verb are composed of formations from a root, originally separate, but gradually grouped together, and afterwards supplemented by new formations made on old lines to supply deficiencies. Some of these forms were inherited, already made, by the Latin language; others were developed in the course of the history of the language itself.

## 7. PARTICLES.

Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections are called Particles. In their origin they are (1) caseforms, actual or extinct, (2) compounds and phrases, or (3) meaningless exclamations.

#### I. ADVERBS.

- 1. Derivation.
- 148. Adverbs are regularly formed from adjectives as follows:—
- a. From adjectives of the first and second declensions, by changing the characteristic vowel of the stem to -ē: as, cārē, dearly, from cārus, dear (stem cāro-).
- b. From adjectives of the third declension by adding -ter to the stem. Stems in nt- (nom. -ns) lose the -t. All others are treated as i-stems. Thus, —

fortiter, bravely, from fortis (stem forti-), brave. ācriter, eagerly, from ācer (stem ācri-), eager. vigilanter, watchfully, from vigilāns (stem vigilant-). prūdenter, prudently, from prūdēns (stem prūdent-). aliter, otherwise, from alius (old stem ali-).

- c. Some adjectives of the first and second declensions have adverbs of both forms (-\(\bar{e}\) and -ter). Thus, d\(\bar{u}\)rus, hard, d\(\bar{u}\)r\(\bar{e}\) and d\(\bar{u}\)riter.
- d. The neuter accusative of adjectives and pronouns is often used as an adverb: as, multum, much; facile, easily; quid, why.

So, regularly in the comparative degree: as, acrius, more keenly (positive acriter); facilius, more easily (positive facile).

#### 2. Classification.

149. Adverbs are classified as follows: -

a. ADVERBS OF PLACE.

hīc, here. hūc, hither. hinc, hence. hāc, by this way.

b. ADVERBS OF TIME.

quando? when? (interrog.); cum (quom), when (relat.).

## c. ADVERBS OF DEGREE OR CAUSE.

quam, how, as; tam, so; quamvis, however much, although; quō-modō, how.

d. Interrogative Particles.

an, -ne, anne, utrum, utrumne, num, whether.

## e. NEGATIVE PARTICLES.

non, not (in simple denial); haud (hau, haut), minime, not (in contradiction); ne, not (in prohibition); neve, neu, nor; nedum, much less.

f. Adverbs of Manner (see § 148). g. Numeral Adverbs (see § 96).

## 3. Peculiar Uses of Adverbs.

150. Two negatives are equivalent to an affirmative: as, —

nëmo non audiet, every one will hear (nobody will not hear).

a. Many compounds of which non is the first part express an indefinite affirmative: as, —

nonnullus, some; nonnulli (= aliqui), some few.

nonnihil (= aliquid), something.

nonnemo ( = aliquot), sundry persons.

nonnumquam (= aliquotiens), sometimes.

necnon, also (nor not).

b. Two negatives of which the second is non (belonging to the predicate) express a universal affirmative: as,—

nēmō nōn, nūllus nōn, nobody [does] not, i.e. everybody [does] (cf. nōnnēmō, above, not nobody, i.e. somebody).

nihil non, everything.

numquam non, never not, i.e. always (cf. nonnumquam, above, not never, i.e. sometimes).

# 151. The following adverbs require special notice: -

a. Etiam (et iam), also, even, is stronger than quoque, also, and usually precedes the emphatic word, while quoque follows it: as, —

non verbis solum sed etiam vi (Verr. II. ii, 64), not only by words, but also by force.

hoc quoque maleficium (Rosc. Am. 118), this crime too.

b. Nunc (for †num-ce) means definitely now, in the immediate present, and is not used as in English of past time. Iam means now, already, at length, presently, and includes a reference to previous time through which the state of things described has been or will be reached. It may be used of any time. With negatives it means (no) longer.

Tum, then, is correlative to cum, when, and may be used of any time. Tune, then, at that time, is a strengthened form of tum tum-ce, cf. nunc). Thus,—

ut iam antea dixī, as I have already said before.

sī iam satis aetātis atque rōboris habēret (Rosc. Am. 149), if he had attained a suitable age and strength (lit. if he now had, as he will by and by).

non est iam lenitati locus, there is no longer room for mercy.

quod iam erat īnstitūtum, which had come to be a practice (had now been established).

nunc quidem deleta est, tunc florebat (Læl. 13), now ('tis true) she [Greece] is ruined, then she was in her glory.

tum cum regnabat, at the time when he reigned.

- c. Certo means certainly; certo (usually), at any rate: as, certo scio, I know for a certainty; ego certo, I at any rate.
- d. Primum means first, "firstly" (first in order or for the first time), and implies a series of events or acts. Primo means at first, as opposed to afterwards, giving prominence merely to the difference of time: as,—

hoc primum sentio, this I hold in the first place.

aedes primo ruere rebamur, at first we thought the house was falling.

In enumerations, **primum** (or **primo**) is often followed by **deinde**, secondly, in the next place, or by tum, then, or by both in succession. **Deinde** may be several times repeated (secondly, thirdly, etc.). The series is often closed by **denique** or **postremo**, lastly, finally. Thus, —

- prīmum dē genere bellī, deinde dē māgnitūdine, tum dē imperātōre dēligendō (Manil.), first of the kind of war, next of its magnitude, then of the choice of a commander.
- e. Quidem, to be sure, gives emphasis, and often has a concessive meaning, especially when followed by sed, autem, etc.: as,—

hōc quidem vidēre licet (Læl. 54), THIS surely one may see. [Emphatic.] (sēcūritās) speciē quidem blanda, sed reāpse multīs locīs repudianda (id. 47), (tranquility) in appearance, 'tis true, attractive, but in reality to be rejected for many reasons. [Concessive.]

contra, against.

ergā, towards.

No. . . . quidem means not even or not . . . either. The emphatic word or words must stand between no and quidem.

senex ne quod speret quidem habet (C. M. 68), an old man has NOT anything to hope for EVEN.

sed në Iugurtha quidem quiëtus erat (Jug. 51), but Jugurtha was not quiet

## II. PREPOSITIONS.

**152.** Prepositions are regularly used either with the Accusative or with the Ablative.

a. The following are used with the Accusative: -

extra. outside. ad. to. post, after. adversus, against. praeter, beyond. in, into. adversum, towards. infra. below. prope, near. ante, before. inter, among. propter, on account of. apud, at, near. intra, inside. secundum, next to. sub. under. circa, around. iuxtā. near. circum, around. ob, on account of. suprā, above. penes, in the power. trans, across. circiter, about. cis, citra, this side. per, through. ultra, on the further side.

versus, towards.

b. The following are used with the Ablative: —

pone, behind.

ā, ăb, abs, away from, by.

absque, without, but for.

coram, in presence of.

cum, with.

dē, from.

ë, ex, out of.

in, in.

prae, in comparison with.

pro, in front of, for.

sine, without.

sub, under.

tenus, up to, as far as.

c. The following may be used with either the Accusative or the Ablative, but with a difference in meaning:—

in, into, in. sub, under. subter, beneath. super, above.

In and sub, when followed by the accusative, indicate motion to, when by the ablative, rest in, a place: as, —

vēnit in aedēs, he came into the house; erat in aedibus, he was in the house. sub ilice consēderat, he had seated himself under an ilex.

sub leges mittere orbem, to subject the world to laws (to send the world under laws).

**153.** The uses of the Prepositions are various, and are explained in the dictionaries.

## III. CONJUNCTIONS.

- **154.** Conjunctions connect words, phrases, or sentences. They are of two classes:—
- a. CO-ORDINATE, connecting co-ordinate or similar constructions (see § 180. a). These are—
  - Copulative or disjunctive, implying a connection or opposition of thought as well as of words: as, et, and.
  - Adversative, implying a connection of words, but a contrast in thought: as, sed, but.
  - 3. Causal, introducing a cause or reason: as, nam, for.
  - 4. Illative, denoting an inference: as, igitur, therefore.
- b. SUBORDINATE, connecting a subordinate or dependent clause with that on which it depends (see § 180. b). These are—
  - Conditional, denoting a condition or hypothesis: as, si, if; nisi, unless.
  - Comparative, implying comparison as well as condition: as, āc sī, as if.
  - 3. Concessive, denoting a concession or admission: as, quamquam, although (lit. however much it may be true that, etc.).
  - 4. Temporal: as, postquam, after.
  - 5. Consecutive, expressing result: as, ut, so that.
  - 6. Final, expressing purpose: as, ut, in order that; ne, that not.
- **155.** Conjunctions are more numerous and more accurately distinguished in Latin than in English. For classified lists, see larger grammar.
- 156. The following are the principal conjunctions whose meaning requires to be noticed:—
- a. Et, and, simply connects words or clauses; -que combines more closely into one connected whole. -que is always enclitic to the word connected or to the first or second of two or more words connected. Thus, —

cum coniugibus et liberis, with [their] wives and children.

ferrō īgnīque, with fire and sword. [Not as separate things, but as the combined means of devastation.]

aqua et igni interdictus, forbidden the use of water and fire. [In a legal formula, where they are considered separately.]

Atque (āc) adds with some emphasis or with some implied reflection on the word added. Hence it is often equivalent to and so, and yet, and besides. But these distinctions depend very much upon the feeling of the speaker, and are often untranslatable: as,—

omnia honesta atque inhonesta, everything honorable and dishonorable (too, without the slightest distinction).

usus atque disciplina, practice and theory beside (the more important or less expected).

atque ego crēdo, and yet I believe (for my part).

In the second of two connected ideas, and not is expressed by neque (nec): as,—

neque vērō hōc sōlum dīxit, and he not only said this.

Atque (āc), in the sense of as, than, is also used after words of comparison and likeness: as,—

non secus (aliter) ac sī, not otherwise than if. pro eo ac dēbuī, as was my duty (in accordance as I ought).

b. Sed and the more emphatic vērum or vērō, but, introduce something in opposition to what precedes, especially after negatives (not this . . . but something else). At introduces with emphasis a new point in an argument, but is also used like the others.

At enim almost always introduces a supposed objection which is presently to be overthrown. At is more rarely used alone in this sense. Autem, however, now, is the weakest of the adversatives, and often has hardly any adversative force perceptible. Atqui, however, now, sometimes introduces an objection and sometimes a fresh step in the reasoning. Quod si, but if, and if, now if, is used to continue an argument. Ast is old or poetic and is equivalent to at.

NOTE. — A concessive is often followed by an adversative either in a coordinate or a subordinate clause: as, etiamsī quod scrībās non habēbis, scrībito tamen (Cic.), though you have nothing to write, still write all the same.

c. Aut, or, excludes one alternative; vel and -ve give a choice between two. But this distinction is sometimes neglected. Thus, —

- sed quis ego sum ant quae est in me facultas, but who am I, or what special capacity have I? [Here vel could not be used, because in fact a negative is implied and both alternatives are excluded.]
  - quam tenui aut nulla potius valetudine, what feeble health [he had], or rather none at all. [Here vel might be used, but would refer only to the expression, not to the fact.]
- vīta tālis fuit vel fortūnā vel gloriā, his life was such either in respect to fortune or fame (whichever way you look at it).
- sī propīnguos habeant imbēcilliores vel animo vel fortūnā, if they have relatives beneath them either in spirit or in fortune (in either respect, for example).
- cum cogniti sunt et aut deorum aut regum filii inventi, sons either of gods or of kings. [Here one case would exclude the other.]

Sive (seu) is properly used in disjunctive conditions (if either . . . or if), but also with alternative words and clauses, especially with two names for the same thing: as,-

sive arridens sive quod ita putaret (De Or. i. 91), either laughingly or because he really thought so.

Vel is often used with no alternative force: as, vel minimus, the very least.

- d. Nam and namque, for, usually introduce a real reason, formally expressed, for a previous statement; enim (always postpositive), a less important explanatory circumstance put in by the way; etenim (for, you see; for, you know, and its negative neque enim introduce something self-evident or needing no proof.
  - (ea vīta) quae est sõla vīta nõminanda. nam dum sumus in hīs inclūsī compāgibus corporis mūnere quodam necessitātis et gravī opere perfungimur. est enim animus caelestis, etc. (Cat. Maj. 77).
  - hārum trium sententiārum nūllī prorsus assentior. nec enim illa prima vēra est, for of course that first one is n't true.
- e. Ergo, therefore, is used of things proved formally, but often has a weakened force. Igitur, then, accordingly, is weaker than ergo and is used in passing from one stage of an argument to another. Itaque, therefore, accordingly, and so, is used in proofs or inferences from the nature of things rather than in formal logical proof.

All of these are often used merely to resume a train of thought broken by a digression or parenthesis. Idcirco, for this reason, on this account, is regularly followed (or preceded) by a correlative: as,

quia, quod, sī, ut, nē, and refers to the special point introduced by

nē aegrī quidem quia non omnēs convalēscunt, idcirco ars nulla medicīnae est.

malum mihi vidētur mors. est miserum igitur, quoniam malum. certē. ergō et eī quibus ēvēnit iam ut morerentur et eī quibus ēventūrum est miserī. mihi ita vidētur. nēmō ergō nōn miser. (Tusc. i. 9.)

meministis enim cum illīus nefāriī gladiātōris vōcēs percrēbuissent quās, etc.—tum igitur (Mur. 50).

f. Quia, because, regularly introduces a fact; quod, either a fact or a statement. Quoniam (for quom iam), inasmuch as, since, when now, now that, has reference to motives, excuses, or justifications, and the like. Quando, since, is mostly archaic or late.

possunt quia posse videntur, they can because they think they can.

locus est ā mē quoniam ita Mūrēna voluit retrāctandus (Mur. 54), I must review the point, since Murena has so wished.

mē reprehendis quod idem dēfendam (as he had not) quod lēge pūnierim (Mur. 67), you blame me because [as you say] I defend the same charge which I have punished by law.

In the denial of a reason, non quo is used as well as non quod, non quia, and non quin, but not non quoniam. Thus, —

- non quia multis debeo... sed quia saepe concurrunt aliquorum bene de me meritorum inter ipsos contentiones (Planc. 78), not because I am indebted to many, but because, etc.
- non quin pari virtute et voluntate ali fuerint, sed tantam causam non habuerunt (Phil. vii. 6), not that there were not others of equal courage and good-will, but they had not so much reason.
- g. Cum (quom), when, is always a relative, and is often correlative with tum, (see h. I, below); quando, when (rarely since), is used as interrogative, relative, and indefinite: as, quando? hodio, when? to-day; si quando, if ever.
- h. 1. Conjunctions, especially those of relative origin, frequently have a correlative in another clause, to which they correspond: as,—ut sēmentem fēceris, ita metēs, as you sow, so shall you reap.
- Often the same conjunction is repeated in two co-ordinate clauses. Examples are —

et ... et, both ... and.
modo ... modo, now ... now.
nunc ... nunc, now ... now.

i. The concessives (etsi, quamvis, etc., although) may introduce either a fact or a mere supposition, and are often followed by the correlative tamen, yet, nevertheless; quamquam regularly introduces an admitted fact and not a mere supposition.

Quamquam (and rarely etsī, tametsī) in the sense of though (and yet, but, however) may also introduce an independent statement made to limit or correct the preceding: as,—

ille volt diū vīvere, hīc diū vīxit, quamquam, ō dī bonī, quid est in hominis vītā diū? (Cat. M. 68), the one wishes to live long, the other has lived long, though (after all) Good Heavens! what is there that is long in the life of man?

k. Autem, enim, and vero are postpositive, i.e. they always follow one or more words of their clause; so, generally, igitur and often tamen.

## INTERJECTIONS.

O, en, ecce, ehem, papae, vah (of astonishment).

io, evae, evoe, euhoe (of joy).

heu, eheu, vae, alas (of sorrow).

heus, eho, ehodum, ho (of calling); st, hist.

eia, euge (of praise).

pro (of attestation): as, pro pudor, shame!

# FORMATION OF WORDS.

Note. — All formation of words is originally a process of composition. An element significant in itself is added to another significant element, and thus the meaning of the two is combined.

#### I. ROOTS AND STEMS.

# 157. Roots 1 are of two kinds :-

- I. Verbal, expressing ideas of action or condition (sensible phenomena).
- 2. Pronominal, expressing ideas of position and direction.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> For the distinction between Roots and Stems, see §§ 21, 22.

Stems are divided into (1) Noun- (including Adjective-) stems, and (2) Verb-stems.

- 158. Words are formed by inflection: -
- I. From roots inflected as stems, —
- a. Without change: as, duc-is (dux), DUC; nec-is (nex); is, id. So in verbs: as, est, fert, est.
- b. With change of the root-vowel: as, lūc-is (lūx), LUC; pāc-is (pāx). So in verbs: ī-s for teis, from eō, īre; fātur, from for, fārī.

Note. — It is impossible to say whether the form of root in a or in b is the original one. But for convenience the above order is adopted.

- c. With reduplication: as, fur-fur, mar-mor, mur-mur. So in verbs: as, si-stō (root STA).
  - 2. From derived stems; see § 159.

#### II. SUFFIXES.

- **159.** Stems are derived from roots or from other stems by means of *suffixes*. These are —
- Primary: added to the root, or (later by analogy) to verbstems.
  - 2. Secondary: added to a noun- or adjective-stem.

Both primary and secondary suffixes are for the most part pronominal roots (§ 157. 2), but a few are of doubtful origin. Thus a word regularly consists of a verbal root and one or more pronominal roots and inflectional terminations.

## 1. Primary Suffixes.

- 160. The words in Latin formed immediately from the root by means of Primary suffixes are few.
- a. Inherited words so formed were mostly further developed by the addition of other suffixes, as we might make an adjective *lone-ly-some-ish*, meaning nothing more than *lone*, *lonely*, or *lonesome*.
- b. By such accumulation of suffixes, new compound suffixes were formed which crowded out even the old types of derivation: thus,—

A word like **mēns**, **mentis**, by the suffix **ōn**- (nom. **-ō**) gave **mentiō**, and this being divided into **men** + **tiō**, gave rise to a new type of abstract nouns in **-tiō** (phonetically **-siō**): as, **lēgātiō**, *embassy*.

A word like auditor, by the suffix io- (nom. -ius), gave rise to adjectives like auditorius, of which the neuter is used to denote the place where the action of the verb is performed. Hence -torium, N., becomes a regular suffix (§ 164. i. 5).

So in English such a word as mechanically gives a suffix -ally, making telegraphically, though there is no such word as telegraphical.

- c. Examples of primary suffixes are —
- 1. Vowel suffixes: as. -
- a, found in nouns and adjectives of a- and o-stems: as, sonus, ludus, vagus, scrība, toga (root TEG).
- 2. Suffixes with a consonant: as, -

ta (in the form to-) in the regular perfect passive participle, as tēctus, tēctum; sometimes with an active sense, as in pōtus, prānsus; and found in a few words not recognized as participles, as putus (cf. pūrus), altus (alō).

va (commonly uo-) with an active or passive meaning, as in ecus, arvum, conspicuus, exiguus, vacīvus (vacuus).

# 2. Significant Endings.

161. Both primary and secondary suffixes, especially in the form of compound suffixes, were used in Latin with more or less consciousness of their meaning. They may therefore be called Significant Endings.

They form: 1. Nouns of Agency; 2. Names of Action; 3. Adjectives (active or passive).

# III. DERIVATION OF NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

# r. Nouns of Agency.

162. Nouns of Agency properly denote the agent or doer of an action. But they include many words in which the idea of agency has entirely faded out, and also many words used as adjectives. Their significant endings are —

a. -tor (-sor), M., -trīx, F., added to roots or verb-stems to denote the agent or doer of an action.

cano, sing (CAN, supine †cantum); cantor, singer; cantrix, songstress.

tondeō, shear (TOND as root, sup. tōnsum); tōnsor, tōnstrīx, hair-cutter.

By analogy -tor is sometimes added to noun-stems as if stems of lost verbs: as, viātor, traveller, from via, way (but cf. inviō).

b. t- (originally ta-, cf. § 160. c), c., added to verb-stems making nouns in -es (-itis, -etis, stem -it-, -et-) descriptive of a character: as,—

teges (verb-stem tege-, cf. tego, cover), a coverer, a mat.

c. -ō (gen. -ōnis, stem ōn-), M., added to stems conceived as verb-stems (but perhaps originally noun-stems) to indicate a person employed in some specific art or trade: as,—

gerō (GES in gerō, gerere, carry, but compare -ger in armiger, squire), a carrier.

com-bibo (BIB as root in bibo, bibere, drink), a pot-companion.

#### 2. Names of Actions.

**163.** Names of Actions are derived (I) really or apparently from roots and verb-stems (*primary*) or (2) from noun-stems (*secondary*).

Note. — These easily pass into pure Concrete nouns denoting the result, means, or instrument of the action. Compare an apparition, a congregation, a rainfall, a large following, a drive of logs.

I. Real or Apparent Primary Formations.

a. -or (st. or-, earlier os-), M., -os (gen. -is, st. i-, earlier es-), F.,
-us (st. os-, or os-), N., added to roots make names of actions: as, —

timeo, fear (verb); tim-or, fear (noun).

sedeo, sit; sed-es, seat.

decet, it is becoming; dec-us, grace, beauty.

NOTE. — Many nouns of this class are formed by analogy from imaginary roots: as, facinus (from a supposed root FACIN).

b. -iō (st. iōn-), -tiō (st. tiōn-), -tūra (st. tūra-), F., -tus (st. tu-),
M., (phonetically -siō, -sūra, -sus), apparently added to roots or verbstems, make verbal abstracts.

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lego, enroll; leg-io (an enrolling, the thing enrolled), a legion.
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rego, direct; reg-io, a direction, a region.

insero (SA), implant; insi-tio, grafting.

vocō, call; vocā-tiō, a calling.

molior, toil; moli-tio, a toiling.

pingo (PIG), paint; pic-tura, the art of painting, a painting.

sentio, feel; sen-sus, feeling, perception, a feeling.

fruor, enjoy (for †fruguor); fruc-tus, enjoyment, fruit, a fruit.

c. -men, -mentum, -monium, N., -monia, F., apparently added to roots or verb-stems denote ACTS, or MEANS and RESULTS of acts.

ago, root AG, lead; ag-men, line of march, a company.

regi- (stem seen in rego, direct); { regi-men, rule. regi-mentum, rule.

So colu-men, pillar; mō-men, movement; nō-men, name.

fruor, enjoy; fru-mentum, grain.

testor, witness; testi-monium, testimony.

queror, complain; queri-monia, complaint.

Also fla-men (M.), a priest (flo, blow, of the sacrificial fire).

REMARK. —-monium and -monia are also used as secondary, forming nouns from other nouns and from adjectives: as, sancti-monia, sanctity (sanctus, holy); matri-monium, marriage (mater, mother).

d. -bulum, -culum, -brum, -crum, -trum, N., added to verb-stems or roots (rarely to noun-stems), denote MEANS, INSTRUMENT, or PLACE: as, —

pasco, feed; pa-bulum, fodder.

sto, stand; sta-bulum, stall (standing-place).

tus (gen. turis), incense; turi-bulum, a censer.

vehō, carry; vehi-culum, wagon.

piō, purify; piā-culum, an expiation.

flo, blow; fla-bra (pl.), blasts.

candela, a candle; candela-brum, a candlestick.

sepelio, bury; sepul-crum, tomb (place for burying).

claudo, shut; claus-trum, a bar.

A few Masculines and Feminines of the same formation occur as , nouns and adjectives : as, —

for, speak; fā-bula, tale.

rideo, laugh; ridi-culus, laughable.

facio, make; fa-ber, smith.
lateo, hide; late-bra, hiding-place.
tero, bore; tere-bra, auger.
mulgeo, milk; mulc-tra, milk-pail.
uro, burn; Aus-ter, South wind.

# 2. Secondary Formations.

e. -ia, -tia (-iēs, -tiēs), -tās, -tūs, -tūdō, F., are added to adjective stems and a few to nouns to make abstracts. So -dō and -gō, F., but associated with verbs, and apparently added to verb-stems. Thus, —

audāx, bold; audāc-ia, boldness. So, fīdūc-ia, confidence (†fīdūx).
prūdēns, wise; prūdent-ia, wisdom.
superbus, proud; superb-ia, pride.
trīstis, sad; trīsti-tia, sadness.
pauper, poor; pauper-iēs, poverty.
sēgnis, lazy; sēgni-tiēs, laziness.
bonus, good; boni-tās, goodness.
cīvis, citizen; cīvi-tās, citizenship.

senex, old; senec-tūs, age. solus, alone; soli-tūdō, solitude.

dulcis, sweet; dulcē-dō, sweetness (probably from a lost stem dulcē-, cf. dulcē-scō).

cupiō, I desire; cupī-dō (as if from stem cupī-, cf. cupī-vī). lumbus, the loin; lumbā-gō, lumbago (as if from †lumbō, āre). rubus, bramble (red bush); rūbī-gō, rust (redness). prūrī-gō, itch; prūrī-gō, itching.

Stems ending in o- or a- lose these vowels before -ia (as superb-ia), and change them to i before -tās, -tūs, -tia (as boni-tās, above).

Consonant-stems often insert -i before -tās: as, loquāx (stem loquāc-), loquāci-tās; but hones-tās, māies-tās (as if from old adjectives in -es), ūber-tās, volup-tās. o after i is changed to e: as, pius (stem pio-), pie-tās; socius, socie-tās (see § 11. d).

f. -ium, -tium, added to noun- and perhaps verb-stems, form neuter abstracts, which easily pass into concretes denoting OFFICES and GROUPS: as, —

hospes (gen. hospit-is), a guest; hospit-ium, hospitality, an inn. servus, a slave; servi-tium, slavery, the slave class.

collega, a colleague; colleg-ium, colleagueship, a college.

auspex, a soothsayer; auspic-ium, soothsaying, an omen.

gaudeo, rejoice; gaud-ium, joy.

benefacio, benefit; benefic-ium, a kindness (but cf. beneficus).

dē-sīderō, miss (from † dē-sīdēs, out of place, of missing soldiers);
dēsīder-ium, longing.

effugio, escape; effug-ium, an escape (cf. profugus).

ad verbum, [added] to a verb; adverb-ium, an adverb.

inter-lunas, between moons; interlun-ium, time of new moon.

regis fuga, flight of a king; regifug-ium, flight of kings.

Vowel-stems lose their vowel before -ium, as colleg-ium, from collega.

Less commonly -nia, F., -nium, -lium, -cinium, N., are added to noun-stems, but confused with verb-stems: as, —

pecū, cattle; pecū-nia, property consisting of cattle, money (cf. chattels).

conticesco, hush; contici-nium, the hush of night.

augeo, increase; auxi-lium, help.

pecū, cattle; pecū-lium, private property (cf. pecūlor, implying a noun † pecūlum).

lātrō, robber; lātrō-cinium, robbery (cf. lātrōcinor, rob, implying an adj. † lātrōcinus).

## 3. Adjectives.

**164.** Derivative adjectives are *Nominal* (from nouns or adjectives) or *Verbal* (as from roots or verb-stems).

# I. NOMINAL.

a. -ulus (-a, -um) (after a vowel -olus), -culus, -ellus, -illus, make an important class of adjectives, usually appropriated to one gender, that of the Primitive, and used as DIMINUTIVE NOUNS: as,—

rīvus, a brook; rīv-ulus, a streamlet.

gladius, a sword; gladi-olus, a small sword.

filius, a son; fili-olus, a little son.

filia, a daughter; fili-ola, a little daughter.

ātrium, a hall; ātri-olum, a little hall.

homo, a man; homun-culus, a dwarf.

auris, an ear; auri-cula, a little ear.

munus, N., a gift; munus-culum, a little gift.

†puera (cf. puer, a boy); puella (for †puer-ula), a girl.

codex, a block; codic-illi, writing-tablets.

miser, wretched; mis-ellus, rather wretched.

liber, a book; lib-ellus, a little book.

aureus (-a, -um), golden; aure-olus (-a, -um), golden.

parvus (-a, -um), little; parv-olus (later parv-ulus), very small. māior (old māios), greater; māius-culus, somewhat larger.

REMARK. — -ciō, added to stems in n-, has the same diminutive force, but is added to masculines only: as, homun-ciō, a dwarf (from homō, a man).

b. -adēs, M., -ās, F., -idēs, -īdēs, M., -is, -ēis, F., -ēus, -eus, M., are added to proper names, forming PATRONYMICS, to indicate descent or relationship.

These, originally Greek adjectives, have almost all become nouns in Latin: as,—

Tyndareus: Tyndar-ides, Castor or Pollux; Tyndar-is (gen. -idis), Helen, daughter of Tyndarus.

Atlas: Atlanti-ades, Mercury; Atlant-ides (Gr. pl.), the Pleiads.

Scipio: Scipi-ades, son of Scipio.

Anchises: Anchisi-ades, Eneas. Theseus: Thes-ides, son of Theseus.

Tydeus: Tyd-ides, Diomedes, son of Tydeus.

Oîleus: Aiax Oîl-ēus, son of Oileus.

Thaumas: Thaumanti-as (gen. -adis), Iris, daughter of Thaumas. Hesperus: Hesper-ides (from Hesper-is, idis), F. pl., the daughters

of Hesperus, the Hesperides.

c. ānus, -ēnus, -īnus; -ās, -ēnsis, -acus (-ācus), -icus; -ēus (generally shortened to -ēus), -ēius, -icius, form adjectives with the sense of BELONGING TO.

1. So from common nouns: as, -

mons (st. monti-), mountain; mont-anus, of the mountains. ante lucem, before light; anteluc-anus, before daylight.

egeo, lack; eg-enus, needy.

terra, earth; terr-enus, earthly.

collis, hill; coll-inus, of a hill.

libertus, one's freedman; libert-inus, of the class of freedmen.

vitulus, a calf; vitul-īna (sc. carō), veal.

quis, who? cui-as, of what country?

infimus, lowest; infim-as, of the lowest rank.

forum, a market-place; for-ensis, of a market-place, or the Forum.

merum, pure wine; mer-ācus, pure.

cīvis, a citizen; cīv-icus, civic, of a citizen.

femina, a woman; femin-eus, of a woman, feminine.

lāc, milk (st. lacti-); lact-eus, milky.

plēbēs, the commons; plēb-ēius, of the commons, plebeian.

pater, father; patricius, patrician.

2. But especially from proper nouns (names of places, peoples, and persons) denoting BELONGING TO OF COMING FROM: as, —

Roma: Rom-anus, Roman.

Sulla: Sull-ani, Sulla's veterans.

Cyzicus: Cyzic-eni, Cyzicenes, people of Cyzicus.

Liguria: Ligur-inus, of Liguria.

Arpinum: Arpin-as, of Arpinum (cf. Samnium: Samnis, gen.

-itis, a Samnite).

Sicilia: Sicili-ensis, Sicilian.

Ilum, Troy; Ili-acus, Trojan (a Greek form).

Plato: Platonic.

Aquila: Aquil-eius, a Roman name; Aquileia, a town in Italy.

3. Many derivative adjectives with these endings have by usage become nouns. Thus, —

silva, woods; Silv-anus, M., a god of the woods.

membrum, limb; membr-āna, F., skin.

·Aemilia (gens); Aemili-anus, M., name of Scipio Africanus.

lanius, butcher; lāni-ēna, F., a butcher's stall.

†Aufidius (Aufidus), M.; Aufidi-enus, a Roman name.

incola, an inhabitant; inquil-inus, M., a lodger.

caecus, blind; Caec-ina, used as M., a Roman name.

gallus, a cock; gall-ina, F., a hen.

ruō, fall (no noun existing); ru-ina, F., a fall.

doctor, teacher; doctr-ina, F., learning.

d. -ālis, -āris, -ēlis, -īlis, ūlis, -nus, PERTAINING TO, of various modes of relation or possession, but not used as Gentile adjectives: as, —

nātura, nature; nātur-ālis, natural.

populus, a people; popul-āris, fellow-countryman.

patruus, uncle; patru-elis, cousin.

hostis, an enemy; host-ilis, hostile.

currus, chariot; sella cur-ulis, curule chair.

vēr, spring; vēr-nus, vernal.

e. -ter (-tris), -ester (-estris), -timus, -ernus, -urnus, -ternus (-turnus), BELONGING TO, of places, times, and the like (but some are general adjectives).

palūs, a marsh; palūs-ter, of the marshes.

pedes, a footman; pedes-ter, of the foot.

sex mēnsēs, six months; sēmēs-tris, semi-annual.

silva, a wood; silv-ester, silv-estris, woody.

finis, an end; fini-timus, neighboring, on the borders.

heri (old hesi), vesterday; hes-ternus, of vesterday.

diū, long (in time); diū-turnus, lasting.

hodie, to-day; hodi-ernus, of to-day.

dies, day; di-urnus, daily.

f. -ātus, -ītus, -ūtus, PROVIDED WITH, make adjectives with participial ending, formed from nouns, but in reference to an imaginary verb-stem (cf. the English horned, crested, hooked).

barba, a beard; barb-ātus, bearded.

auris, an ear; aur-itus, long-eared.

versus, a turning; vers-ūtus, crafty, adroit (full of turns).

So -tus, added directly to nouns without reference to any verb: as, —

funus, death; funes-tus, deadly.

honor, honor; hones-tus, honorable.

favor, favor; faus-tus (for †faves-tus), favorable.

g. -eus, -ius, -āceus, -īcius, -āneus (-neus), -ticus, MADE OF OR BELONGING TO, form adjectives of various meanings: as, —

aurum, gold; aur-eus, golden.

pater, a father; patr-ius, paternal.

uxor, a wife; uxorious.

rosa, a rose; ros-āceus, of roses.
later, a brick; later-īcius, of brick.
praesēns, present; praesent-āneus, operating instantly.
extrā, without; extr-āneus, external.
sub terrā, underground; subterr-āneus, subterranean.
salix, willow; salīg-neus, of willow.
volō, fly; volā-ticus, winged (volātus, a flight).
domus, a house; domes-ticus, of the house, domestic.
silva, a wood; silvā-ticus, sylvan.

h. -ārius, -tōrius (-sōrius), BELONGING TO, make many adjectives often fixed as nouns (see i).

ordo, rank, order; ordin-ārius, regular.

argentum, silver; argent-ārius, of silver or money.

extrā, outside; extr-ārius, stranger.

meritus, earned; meri-torius, profitable.

dēvorsus, turned aside; dēvor-sorius, of an inn (cf. i. 5).

- i. Many fixed forms of the above adjective suffixes make nouns, more or less regularly used in particular senses: as,—
  - I. -ārius (regular), person employed about anything: as,—argent-ārius, silversmith, broker (from argentum).
  - 2. -āria, thing connected with something: as, arēn-āriae, F. pl., sandpits (from arēna, sand). Asin-āria, F., name of a play (from asinus, ass).
- 3. -ārium (regular), place of a thing (with a few of more general meaning): as,—

aer-ārium, N., treasury (from aes, copper).
tepid-ārium, N., warm bath (from tepidus, warm).
sūd-ārium, N., a towel (cf. sūdō, -āre, sweat).
sal-ārium, N., salt money, salary (from sāl, salt).
calend-ārium, N., a note-book (from calendae, calends).

4. -tōria (-sōria): as, -

Agitā-tōria, F., a play of Plautus, *The Carter* (from agitātor). vor-sōria, F., a tack (from vorsus, a turn).

5. -tōrium (-sōrium) (regular), place of action (with a few of more general meaning): as, —

dēvor-sōrium, N., an inn (as from dēvortō, turn aside). audī-tōrīum, N., a lecture-room (as from audīō, hear). ten-tōrium, N., a tent (as from tendō, stretch). tēc-tōrium, N., plaster (as from tegō, tēctus, cover). por-tōrium, N., toll (cf. portō, carry, and portus, harbor).

6. -ile, animal-stall; as, -

bov-īle, N., cattle-stall (bos, bovis, ox, cow). ov-īle, sheep-fold (ovis, st. ovi-, sheep).

7. -al for -āle, thing connected with the primitive: as, — capit-al, N., head-dress, capital crime (caput, head).

penetr-āle (esp. in pl.), N., inner apartment (cf. penetrō).
Sāturn-ālia, N. pl. (the regular form for names of festivals), feast of Saturn (from Sāturnus).

8. -ētum, N. (cf. -ātus, -ūtus, see f), place of a thing; as,—querc-ētum, N., oak grove (from quercus, oak).

Argīl-ētum, N., The Clay-pit (from argīlla, clay).

9. -cus (sometimes with inserted i, -icus), -icus, in any one of the genders, with various meanings: as, —

vīli-cus, M., vīli-ca, F., a steward (stewardess) (from villa, farm-house).

fabr-ica, F., a workshop (from faber, workman).

bubul-cus, M., ox-tender (from bub-ulus, dim., cf. bos, ox).

cant-icum, N., song (from cantus, act of singing).

rubr-ica, F., red paint (from ruber, red).

10. -eus, -ea, -eum, with various meanings: as, -

alv-eus, M., a trough (from alvus, the belly).

capr-ea, F., a roe (from caper, he-goat).

flamm-eum, N., a bridal veil (from flamma, flame, from its color).

II. -ium, confounded with the primary suffix (see § 163. f).

12. -ter (stem tro-) and -ter (stem tri-), -aster -ester: as, -

Aus-ter, M., South wind (from uro, burn).

eques-ter, M., knight (for tequet-ter).

sequ-ester, M., a stake-holder (from derivative of sequor, follow). ole-aster, M., wild olive (from olea) (cf. surd-aster, from surdus).

k. -osus, -(o)lens, -(o)lentus, full of, prone to: as, -

fluctus, wave; fluctu-osus, billowy.

forma, beauty; form-osus, beautiful.

periculum, peril; pericul-osus, full of danger.

pestis, pest; pesti-lens, pesti-lentus, pestilent.

vīnum, wine; vīno-lentus, vīn-osus, given to drink.

## II. VERBAL.

l. -āx, -idus, -ulus, -vus- (-uus, -īvus, -tīvus), PRONE TO, FITTED TO, apparently 1 added to verb-stems, form adjectives, to express the action of a verb as a QUALITY OF TENDENCY. -āx, denotes a faulty or aggressive tendency; -tīvus is oftener passive. Thus, —

pugno, fight; pugn-ax, pugnacious.

audeo, dare; aud-ax, bold.

cupio, desire; cup-idus, eager.

bibo, drink; bib-ulus, thirsty (as dry earth, etc.).

protero, trample; proter-vus, violent, wanton.

noceo, do harm; noc-uus (noc-ivus), hurtful, injurious.

capio, take; cap-tivus, captive, M., a prisoner of war.

recido, fall back; recid-ivus, restored.

m. -ilis, -bilis, -ius, -tilis (-silis), express PASSIVE QUALITIES, but occasionally active: as, —

frango (FRAG), break; frag-ilis, frail, breakable.

nosco (GNO), know; no-bilis, well known, famous.

eximo, take out, select; exim-ius, choice, rare (cf. e-greg-ius).

ago, drive; ag-ilis, active.

habeo, hold; hab-ilis, handy.

alo, nourish; al-tilis, fattened.

n. -minus, -mnus, are properly participial (cf. Greek -µevos, and amā-minī). They form a few nouns in which the participial force is discernible: as, —

FE, produce; fe-mina, woman (the producer).

alo, nourish; alu-mnus, a foster child, nursling.

o. -ndus (the same as the gerund-ending) forms a few active or reflexive adjectives: as,—

<sup>1</sup> The forms felt as verbal are, like the nominal forms, derived from noun-stems, and the two are constantly confounded.

sequor, follow; secu-ndus, second (the following), favorable. roto, whirl (from rota, wheel); rotu-ndus, round (whirling).

p. -bundus, -cundus, with a participial meaning, but denoting continuance of the act or quality.

iocus, a jest; iū-cundus, pleasant (cf. iuvo, -āre).

vito, shun; vita-bundus, dodging about.

tremo, tremble; treme-bundus, trembling.

morior, die; mori-bundus, at the point of death.

for, speak; fa-cundus, eloquent.

FE, produce; fe-cundus, fruitful.

So, īra, anger; īrā-cundus, irascible (cf. īrā-scor).

## III. IRREGULAR DERIVATIVES.

q. The primary suffix  $\overline{o}n$ , (nom.  $-\overline{o}$ ) is used as secondary to form nouns (originally adjectives), denoting Possessed of and so expressing a character, often used as proper names 2: as,—

epulae, a feast; epul-o, a feaster.

nāsus, a nose; nās-ō, with a large nose (also as a proper name).

-volus (in bene-volus), wishing; vol-ones (pl.), volunteers. trons, forehead; tront-o, big-head (also as a proper name).

So, cūria, a curia; cūri-ō, head of a curia (also as proper name).

restis, a rope; resti-o, a rope-maker.

† vespertilis, of the evening; vespertili-o, a bat.

r. Rarely suffixes are added to compound stems imagined, but not used in their compound form: as,—

ad-verb-ium, adverb; ad, to, and verbum, verb, but without the intervening † adverbus.

lati-fund-ium, large estate; latus, wide, fundus, estate.

su-ove-taur-īlia, a sacrifice of a swine, a sheep, and a bull; sus, swine, ovis, sheep, taurus, bull, where the primitive would be impossible in Latin.

<sup>1</sup> Compare volvendis mensibus, in the revolving months (Virg.).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> This suffix is the same as in § 162. c, but not connected with a verb.

## IV. DERIVATION OF VERBS.

- 165. Verbs may be classed as Primitive or Derivative.
- 1. Primitive verbs are those inherited by the Latin from the parent speech.
- 2. Derivative verbs are those formed in the development of the Latin as a separate language. They are of two main classes:
  - a. DENOMINATIVE VERBS, formed from nouns or adjectives.
  - b. Verbs apparently derived from other verbs (see § 167).

#### I. Denominative Verbs.

- 166. Verbs were formed in Latin from almost every form of noun- and adjective-stem.
- a. I. Verbs of the first conjugation are formed directly from a-stems, regularly with a transitive meaning: as, fuga, flight; fugō, put to flight; belliger, belligero (not bellum and gero, which would be impossible).
- Note. Originally particular forms of stem formed particular conjugations of verbs, but from changes of stem and from various cross-analogies the relation between conjugations and stem-forms became entirely confused. Thus poena should make † pūnāre, but it really makes pūnīre, as if an i-stem (as in impūni-s); servus makes servāre in one sense, servīre in another.
- 2. Many verbs of the First Conjugation (commonly transitive) are formed from o-stems, changing the o- into a-. Thus, —

stimulus, a goad (stem stimulo-); stimulō (-āre), incite.

aecus, even (stem aequo-); aequō (-āre), make even.

hībernus, of the winter (stem hīberno-); hībernō, pass the winter.

albus, white (stem albo-); albō (-āre), whiten.

pius, pure (stem pio-); piō (-āre), expiate.

3. A few verbs, generally neuter, are formed by analogy from consonant- and u- stems, adding ā to the stem: as, —

vigil, awake; vigilō (-āre), watch. exsul, an exile; exsulō (-āre), be in exile. hiemps (stem hiem-), winter; hiemō (-āre), pass the winter. aestus, tide, seething; aestuō (-āre), surge, boil. levis (stem levi-), light; levō (-āre), lighten.

· b. A few verbs of the Second Conjugation (generally intransitive) are recognizable as formed from noun-stems, but most are inherited, or the primitive noun-stem is lost: as,—

albus, white; albeō, be white (cf. albō, -āre, whiten, under a. 2). cānus (stem cāno-), hoary; cāneō, be hoary. tumulus, hill (implying † tumus, swelling); tumeō, swell. prō-vidus, foreseeing; prō-videō, foresee.
But moneō, remind; cf. meminī, remember. algeō, be cold; cf. algidus, cold.

c. Some verbs in -uo, -uere are formed from noun-stems in u-where probably an i has been lost: as, --

status, position; statuō, set up. metus, fear; metuō, fear.

d. Many verbs of the Fourth Conjugation are formed from real or imagined 1-stems: as, —

moles (-is), mass; molior, -iri, toil.
finis, end; finio, -ire, bound.
sitis, thirst; sitio, -ire, thirst.
stabilis, stable; stabilio, -re, establish.

Some wrongly from other stems treated as if i-stems: as, -

bulla, bubble; bulliō, -īre, boil.

condus, storekeeper; condiō, -īre, preserve.

īnsānus, mad; īnsāniō, -īre, rave.
gestus, gesture; gestiō, -īre, show wild longing.
custōs, guardian; custōdiō, -īre, guard.

#### 2. Verbs from other Verbs.

167. The following classes of verbs regularly derived from other verbs have special meanings connected with their terminations.

a. INCEPTIVES or INCHOATIVES add -sco to the present stem of verbs. They denote the *beginning* of an action. Of some there is no simple verb in existence. Thus, —

caleo, be warm; cale-sco, grow warm.

labo, totter; laba-sco, begin to totter.

scio, know: sci-sco, determine.

cupio, desire; con-cupi-sco, conceive a desire for.

alo, feed; ale-sco, grow.

So, īrā-scor, get angry; cf. īrā-tus.

iuvene-sco, grow young; cf. iuvenis, young man.

vespera-scit, it is getting late; cf. vesper, evening.

Note. — Inceptives properly have only the present stem, but many use the perfect and supine systems of simple verbs: as, calēscō, caluī; proficiscor, profectus.

b. Intensives or Iteratives end in -to or -ito (rarely -so), and denote a forcible or repeated action: as, —

iacio, throw; iac-to, hurl.

dico, say; dict-ito, keep on saying.

quatio, shake; quas-so, shatter.

They are of the first conjugation, and are properly denominative, derived from the participle in **-tus** (stem **to-**).

c. Another form of Intensives — sometimes called Meditatives, or verbs of practice — ends in -essō (rarely -issō). These denote energy or eagerness of action: as, —

capio, take; cap-esso, lay hold on.

facio, do; fac-esso, do (with energy).

peto, seek; pet-isso, seek (eagerly).

These are of the third conjugation, usually having the perfect and supine of the fourth: as, —

lacesso, lacessere, lacessivi, lacessitum, provoke.

d. DIMINUTIVES (derived from real or supposed diminutive nouns) end in -illō, and denote a feeble or petty action: as, —

cavilla, raillery; cav-illor, jest.

canto, sing; cant-illo, chirp or warble.

e. Desideratives end in -turio (-surio), and express longing or wishing. They are of the fourth conjugation, and only three are in common use:—

emō, buy; emp-turiō, want to buy. edō, eat; ē-suriō, be hungry. pariō, bring forth; par-turiō, be in labor.

Note. — Desideratives are derived from some noun of agency: as, empturio, from emptor, buyer. Viso, go to see, is an inherited desiderative of a different formation.

## 3. Compound Words.

A Compound Word is one whose stem is made up of two or more simple stems.

Only noun-stems can be thus compounded. A preposition, however, often becomes attached to a verb.

168. New stems are formed by composition, as follows:1

a. The second part is simply added to the first: as, —

su-ove-taurīlia (sūs, ovis, taurus), the sacrifice of a hog, sheep, and bull (cf.  $\S$  164. r).

septen-decim (septem, decem), seventeen.

 b. The first part modifies the second as an adjective or adverb (Determinative Compounds): as,—

lāti-fundium (lātus, fundus), a large landed estate.

c. The first part has the force of a case, and the second a verbal force (Objective Compounds): as,—

agri-cola (ager, †cola akin to colō), a farmer. armi-ger (arma, †ger akin to gerō), armor-bearer. corni-cen (cornū, †cen akin to canō), horn-blower. carni-fex (carō, †fex akin to faciō), executioner.

¹ In these compounds only the second part receives inflection, commonly the proper inflection of the last stem; but, as this kind of composition is older than inflection, the compounded stem sometimes has an inflection of its own (as, cornicen, -cinis; lūcifer, -ferī; iūdex, -dicis), from stems not occurring in Latin. Especially do compound adjectives take the form of i-stems: as, animus, exanimis; nōrma, abnōrmis (see note, p. 23). In composition stems regularly have their uninflected form: as, igni-spicium, divining by fire. But o- and a-stems weaken the final vowel of the stem to i-, as in āli-pēs (from āla); and i- is so common a termination of compounded stems, that it is often added to stems which do not properly have it: as, foederi-fragus (for †foeder-fragus: foedus, †fragus), treaty-breaking.

d. Compounds of the above kinds, in which the last word is a noun, acquire the signification of adjectives, meaning possessed of the quality denoted (Possessive Compounds): as,—

āli-pēs (āla, pēs), wing-footed.
māgn-animus (māgnus, animus), great-souled.
con-cors (con-, cor), harmonious.
an-ceps (amb-, caput), double (having a head at both ends).

NOTE. — Many compounds of the above classes appear only in the form of some further derivative, the proper compound being not found in Latin.

169. In many apparent compounds, complete words—not stems—have grown together in speech.

These are not strictly compounds in the etymological sense. They are called *Syntactic Compounds*. Examples are —

- a. Compounds of facio, facto, with an actual or formerly existing noun-stem confounded with a verbal stem in e. These are Causative in force: as, consue-facio, habituate (cf. consue-sco, become accustomed); cale-facio, cale-facto, to heat (cf. cale-sco, grow warm).
- b. An adverb or noun combined with a verb: as, bene-dīcō (bene dīcō), to bless; sat-agō (satis agō), to be busy enough.
- c. Many apparent compounds: as, fidē-iubeō (fideī iubeō), to give surety; mān-suētus (manuī suētus), tame; Iūppiter (†Iūspater); Mārci-por (Mārcī puer), slave of Marcus.
  - d. A few phrases forced into the inflections of nouns: as, prō-cōnsul, proconsul (for prō cōnsule, instead of a consul). trium-vir, triumvir (singular from trium virōrum). septen-triō, the Bear, a constellation (supposed singular of septem triōnēs, The Seven Oxen).
- **170.** Many syntactic compounds are formed by prefixing a Particle to some other part of speech:—
- a. Prepositions are prefixed to Verbs or Adjectives and in these compounds retain their original adverbial sense: 1 as, —

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The prepositions sometimes, however, especially ad, in, circum, trans, have their ordinary force as prepositions, and govern the case of a noun: as, transire flumen, to cross a river (see § 239. b. Rem.).

ā, ab, AWAY: au-ferre (ab-ferō), to take away. ad, TO, TOWARDS: af-ferre (ad-ferō), to bring.

ante. BEFORE : ante-ferre, to prefer ; ante-cellere, to excel.

circum, AROUND: circum-munire, to fortify completely.

com-, con- (cum), TOGETHER OF FORCIBLY: con-ferre, to bring together; col-locare, to set firm.

de, DOWN, UTTERLY: de-spicere, despise; destruere, destroy.

ē, ex, OUT: ef-ferre (ec-fero), to carry forth, uplift.

in (with verbs), IN, ON, AGAINST: in-ferre, to bear against.

inter, BETWEEN, TO PIECES: inter-rumpere, to interrupt.

ob, TOWARDS, TO MEET: of-ferre, to offer; ob-venire, to meet. sub, UNDER: sub-struere, to build beneath.

super, UPON, OVER AND ABOVE: super-fluere, to overflow; superstes, a survivor.

Note. — In these compounds short a of the root is weakened to i before one consonant, to e before two: as, facio, conficio, confectus; iacio, eicio, eicetus. But long a is retained: as, peractus.

b. Verbs are also compounded with the following inseparable particles, which do not appear as prepositions in Latin:—

amb- (am-, an-), AROUND: amb-īre, to go about (cf. ἀμφί, about).
dis-, dī-, ASUNDER, APART: dis-cēdere, to depart (cf. duo, two).
por-, FORWARD: por-tendere, to hold forth, predict (cf. porrō, forth).

red-, re-, BACK, AGAIN: red-ire, to return; re-cludere, to open (from claudo, shut); re-ficere, to repair (make again).

sēd-, sē-, APART: sē-cernō, to separate (cf. sed, but).

c. An Adjective is sometimes modified by an adverbial prefix.

Of these, per (less commonly prae), very; sub, somewhat; innot, are regular, and may be prefixed to almost any adjective: as, —

per-māgnus, very large.
sub-rūsticus, rather clownish.

prae-longus, very long. in-finitus, boundless.

Note. — Per and sub, in these senses, are also prefixed to verbs: as, perterreo, terrify; sub-rideo, smile. In ignosco, in-appears to be the negative prefix.

d. Many Verbals are found compounded with a preposition, like the verbs to which they correspond. Thus, —

per-fuga, deserter; cf. per-fugio. trādux, vine-branch; cf. trāns-dūco.

# PART SECOND.—USE OF WORDS (SYNTAX).

## INTRODUCTORY NOTE.

The study of formal grammar arose at a late period in the history of language, and deals with language as fully developed. The terms of Syntax correspond accordingly to the logical habits of thought that have grown up at such a period, and have therefore a logical as well as a simply grammatical meaning. But Syntax as thus developed is not essential to language. A form of words—like ō puerum pulcrum! oh! beautiful boy—may express a thought, and in some languages might even be a sentence, while it does not logically declare anything, and does not, strictly speaking, make what we call a sentence at all.

In the fully developed methods of expression to which we are almost exclusively accustomed, the unit of expression is the Sentence1; that is, the completed statement, with its distinct Subject and Predicate. Originally every sentence is simple. But two simple sentences may be used together, without the subordination of either, to express a more complex form of thought than can be denoted by one alone. This is parataxis (arrangement side by side). In time, two sentences, thus habitually used in connection, come to be regularly associated with each other, in certain relations, as parts of one logical idea, and the one is felt to depend upon the other. This is syntaxis (arrangement together). In this way, through various courses of development, which correspond to the growth of our habitual forms of thought, there are produced various forms of complex sentences. Thus, timeo ne id accidat was originally two simple sentences: I fear. Let that not happen! and these, becoming attached, formed the complex sentence: I fear (lest) that may happen. The results of these processes constitute the subject-matter of Syntax as shown in the annexed Outline.

I. A SENTENCE may be either Simple or Compound: viz., -

I. SIMPLE: { Containing a single statement (Subject and Predicate) (§ 180).

a. Containing two or more Co-ordinate Clauses (§ 180. a).

b. Modified by Subordinate Clauses (complex) (§ 180. b).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The meaning of Sentence is "Thought" (sententia, from sentire). The grammatical form of the sentence is the form in which the thought is expressed.

- II. The Essential Parts of the Sentence are -
  - 1. The Subject: consisting of

    a. Noun or its equivalent (§ 174. 1).

    b. Pronoun contained in verb-ending (§ 174. 2).
  - 2. The PREDICATE:

    | a. Neuter (intransitive) Verb (§ 175. a).
    | b. Copula with Predicate Noun or Adjective (§ 172. note).
    | c. Verb with Object (§§ 175. b, 177).
- III. The Subject and Predicate may be Modified as follows:
  - a. Noun in Apposition (§ 184).
    b. Adjective or Participle (§ 186).
    c. Noun in Oblique Case (§ 178. a, b).
    d. Preposition with its case (§ 260).
    e. Relative Clause (§ 180. c).
  - 2. The Verb (predicate) by

    a. Adverb or Adverbial Phrase (§§ 179, 207).
    b. Predicate Adjective (§ 191).
    c. Subordinate Clause (§ 180. b).
- IV. Hence: { a. Rules of AGREEMENT (the Four Concords) (§ 182). b. Rules of GOVERNMENT (Construction of Cases) (§ \$ 213 ff.).

## THE SENTENCE.

#### r. Definitions.

- 171. A SENTENCE is a form of words which contains a Statement, a Question, an Exclamation, or a Command.
- a. A sentence in the form of a Statement is called a Declarative Sentence: as, ecus currit, the horse runs.
- b. A sentence in the form of a Question is called an Interroga-TIVE SENTENCE: as, ecusne curit? does the horse run?
- c. A sentence in the form of an Exclamation is called an Exclamatory Sentence: as, quam celeriter currit ecus! how fast the horse runs!
- d. A sentence in the form of a Command, an Exhortation, or an Entreaty is called an IMPERATIVE SENTENCE: as, currat ecus, let the horse run; ī, curre per Alpēs, go run across the Alps.

172. Every sentence consists of a Subject and a Predicate.

The Subject of a sentence is the person or thing spoken of.

The PREDICATE is that which is said of the Subject.

Thus, in ecus currit, the horse runs, ecus is the subject, and currit the predicate.

Note. — Every complete sentence must contain a subject (§ 174) and a verb. The verb itself is usually the predicate, but when any form of sum is used simply to connect a noun or adjective as an attribute with the subject, such word is called the *predicate noun* or adjective, and sum is known as the copula (or connective) (§ 176. a). Thus, in Caesar consul erat, Caesar was consul, Caesar is the subject, consul the predicate noun, and erat the copula.

But sum in the sense of exist makes a complete predicate alone. It is then called the substantive verb: as, sunt virī fortēs, there are (exist) brave men.

## 2. Subject and Predicate.

173. I. (RULE 13.) The Subject of a Finite verb is in the Nominative Case: as,—

ecus currit, the horse runs.

rēgīna sedet, the queen sits.

2. (Rule 36.) The Subject of an Infinitive is in the Accusative (see § 240. f).

Note. — A finite verb is a verb in the Indicative, Subjunctive, or Imperative. These are called finite moods to distinguish them from the Infinitive.

174. I. The Subject of a sentence is usually a Noun or some word or phrase used as a Noun: as, —

hūmānum est errāre, to err is human.

quaeritur num mors malum sit, the question is whether death is an evil. vēnit, incertum est unde, he came, where from is uncertain.

2. But in Latin the subject may be implied in the termination of the verb (see  $\S$  206. a, b): as,—

# 175. Verbs are either Intransitive or Transitive.

a. An Intransitive (or Neuter) verb contains in itself an entire statement: as, —

cado, I fall (am falling).

sol lucet, the sun is shining.

sunt virī fortēs, there are brave men.

b. A Transitive (or Active) verb has or requires a Direct Object to complete its sense (see § 177): as,—

frätrem cecīdit, he slew his brother.

NOTE I. — Among transitive verbs FACTITATIVE VERBS are sometimes distinguished as a separate class. These state an act which produces the thing expressed by the word which completes their sense. Thus, mēnsam fēcit, he made a table (which was not in existence before), is distinguished from mēnsam percussit, he struck a table (which already existed).

NOTE 2.—A transitive verb may often be used absolutely without any object expressed: as, arat, he is ploughing, where the verb does not cease to be transitive because the object is left indefinite, as we see by adding,—quid, what? agrum suum, his land.

## 3. Predicate Noun.

176. An intransitive verb is often followed by a noun or adjective to describe or define the subject. This is called a Predicate Noun or Adjective: as,—

mortuus cecidit, he fell dead.

Quintus sedet iudex, Quintus sits as judge.

Caesar victor incēdit, Casar advances victorious (a victor).

a. The copula sum, especially, is used with a predicate noun or adjective (see § 172. note). So, also, verbs signifying to become, to be made, to be named, to appear, whence these are called COPULATIVE (i.e. coupling) verbs.

Note. — A noun in agreement with some part of the predicate is sometimes called a Predicate Noun (see § 185. c).

b. A Predicate noun or adjective after the copula sum or a copulative verb is in the same case as the subject (see § 185. a).

Röma est patria nostra, Rome is our country.

stellae lücidae erant, the stars were bright (cf. stellae lücebant).

consul creatus est, he was elected consul.

mors fīnis esse vidētur, death seems to be the end.

dīcit non omnes bonos esse beātos, he says that not all good men are happy.

## 4. Object.

177. The person or thing immediately affected by the action of a verb is called the DIRECT OBJECT.

A person or thing indirectly affected is called the In-DIRECT OBJECT.

Only transitive verbs can have a Direct Object; but an Indirect Object may be used with both transitive and intransitive verbs (§§ 225, 226). Thus,—

pater vocat filium (direct object), the father calls his son.

mihi (ind. obj.) agrum (dir. obj.) ostendit, he showed me a field.

mihi (ind. obj.) placet, it is pleasing to me.

Note. — The distinction between transitive and intransitive verbs is not fixed, but most transitive verbs may be used intransitively, and many verbs usually intransitive may take a direct object and so become transitive (§ 237. b).

a. When a transitive verb is changed from the Active to the Passive voice, the Direct Object becomes the Subject and is put in the nominative case: as,—

Active: pater filium vocat, the father calls [his] son.

Passive: filius a patre vocatur, the son is called by his father.

Active: lunam et stellas videmus, we see the moon and the stars.

Passive: luna et stellae videntur, the moon and stars are seen (appear).

b. With certain verbs, the Genitive, Dative, or Ablative is used where the English, from a difference in meaning, requires the Objective. Thus,—

hominem videō, I see the man (ACCUSATIVE).
hominī serviō, I serve the man (DATIVE, see § 227).
hominis misereor, I pity the man (GENITIVE, see § 221. a).
homine amīcō ūtor, I treat the man as a friend (ABLATIVE, see § 249).

c. Many verbs transitive in Latin are translated in English by an intransitive verb with a preposition: as,—

petit aprum, he aims at the boar. laudem affectat, he strives after praise. curat valētūdinem, he takes care of his health. Note. — One or more words, essential to the grammatical completeness of a sentence, but clear enough to the mind of a hearer, are often omitted. This omission is called ELLIPSIS, and the sentence is called an ELLIPTICAL SENTENCE: as, adest, he is here; quis? (sc. adest), who? miles (sc. adest), the soldier.

## 5. Modification.

178. A Subject or a Predicate may be modified by a single word, or by a group of words (a Phrase or a Clause, see §§ 179, 180).

The modifying word or group of words may itself be modified in the same way.

- a. A single modifying word may be an adjective, an adverb, an appositive (§ 184), or the oblique case of a noun. Thus, in the sentence vir fortis patienter fert, a brave man bears patiently, the adjective fortis, brave, modifies the subject vir, man, and the adverb patienter, patiently, modifies the predicate fert, bears.
- b. The modifying word is in some cases said to LIMIT the word to which it belongs. Thus, in the sentence pueri patrem video, I see the boy's father, the genitive pueri limits patrem (by excluding any other father).
- 179. A Phrase is a group of words, without subject or predicate of its own, which may be used as an Adjective or an Adverb.

Thus, in the sentence vir fuit summā nobilitāte, he was a man of the highest nobility, the words summā nobilitāte, of the highest nobility, are used for the adjective nobilis, noble (or nobilissimus, very noble), and are called an Adjective Phrase. In the sentence māgnā celeritāte vēnit, he came with great speed, the words māgnā celeritāte, with great speed, are used for the adverb celeriter, quickly (or celerrimē, very quickly), and are called an Adverbial Phrase.

180. Sentences are either Simple or Compound.

A SIMPLE SENTENCE is a sentence containing a single statement.

A COMPOUND SENTENCE is a sentence containing more than one statement, and each single statement in it is called a CLAUSE.

a. If one statement is simply added to another, the clauses are said to be Co-ordinate. They are usually connected by a Co-ordinate Conjunction (§ 154. a); but this is sometimes omitted (§ 208. b). Thus,—

dīvide et imperā, divide and conquer. But, — vēnī, vīdī, vīcī, I came, I saw, I conquered.

b. If one statement modifies another in any way, the modifying clause is said to be SUBORDINATE, and the clause modified is called the MAIN CLAUSE.

This subordination is indicated by some connecting word, either a Subordinate Conjunction or a Relative (§ 154. b): as, —

öderint dum metuant, let them hate so long as they fear.

servum mīsit quem sēcum habēbat, he sent the slave whom he had with him.

A sentence containing one or more subordinate clauses is sometimes called Complex.

Note. — A subordinate clause may itself be modified by another subordinate clause.

c. A clause introduced by a Relative pronoun or adverb is called a Relative Clause.

A clause introduced by an adverb of time is called a Temporal Clause. Thus, —

dum tacent clamant, while they are silent they cry aloud.

hominës aegrī morbō gravī cum iactantur aestū febrīque, sī aquam gelidam biberint prīmō relevārī videntur, men suffering with a severe sickness, when they are tossing with the heat of fever, if they drink cold water, seem at first to be relieved.

d. A clause containing a Condition, introduced by sī, if, or some equivalent, is called a Conditional Clause. A sentence containing a conditional clause is called a Conditional Sentence.

Thus, sī aquam gelidam biberint, prīmō relevārī videntur is a Conditional Sentence, and sī . . . biberint is a Conditional Clause.

e. A clause expressing the Purpose of an action is called a FINAL or PURPOSE CLAUSE.

edo ut vivam, I eat to live (that I may live).

mīsit lēgātōs quī dīcerent, he sent ambassadors to say (who should say).

A clause expressing the Result of an action is called a Consecutive or Result Clause.<sup>1</sup>

tam longē aberam ut non vidērem, I was too far away to see (so far away that I did n't see).

#### AGREEMENT.

- 181. A word is said to agree with another when it is required by usage to be in the same Gender, Number, Case, or Person.
- 182. The following are the general forms of Agreement, sometimes called the Four Concords:—
- I. The agreement of the Noun in Apposition or as Predicate (§§ 184, 185).
  - 2. The agreement of the ADJECTIVE with its Noun (§ 186).
  - 3. The agreement of the RELATIVE with its Antecedents (§ 198).
  - 4. The agreement of the VERB with its Subject (§ 204).
- a. SYNESIS, or construction ad sensum (construction according to sense) is a construction in which a word takes the gender or number, not of the word with which it should regularly agree, but of some other word implied in that word.

#### I. NOUNS.

183. (RULE I.) A noun used to describe another, and denoting the same person or thing, agrees with it in Case: as,—

Servius rex, Servius the king.

ad urbem Athenas, to the city [of] Athens.

Cicero consul creatur, Cicero is chosen consul.

The descriptive noun may be either an Appositive (§ 184) or a Predicate noun (§ 185).

 $^{1}$  Observe that the classes defined in a-e are not mutually exclusive, but that a single clause may belong to several of them at once. Thus, a relative clause is usually subordinate, and may be at the same time conditional; and subordinate clauses may be co-ordinate with each other.

#### 1. Apposition.

- 184. The descriptive noun, when in the same part of the sentence with the noun described, is called an Appositive, and is said to be in Apposition: as,
  - externus timor, māximum concordiae vinculum, iungēbat animos (Liv. ii. 39), fear of the foreigner, the chief bond of harmony, united their hearts. [Here the descriptive noun belongs to the subject.]
  - quattuor hic primum omen equos vidi (Æn. iii. 537), I saw here four horses, the first omen. [Here both nouns are in the predicate.]
  - litteräs Graecäs senex didici (Cat. M. 26), I learned Greek when an old man. [Here senex is in apposition with the omitted subject of didici, and expresses the time, condition, etc., of the act.]
- a. Words expressing parts may be in apposition with a word including the parts, or vice versa: as.—

Gnaeus et Pūblius Scīpiones, Cneius and Publius, the Scipios.

- b. An appositive generally agrees in GENDER and NUMBER when it can: as,
  - secuntur năturam, optimam ducem (Læl. 19), they follow nature, the best guide.
  - omnium doctrīnārum inventrīcēs Athēnās (De Or. i. 13), Athens, discoverer of all learning.
- c. A common noun in apposition with a Locative (§ 258. c) is put in the Ablative, with or without the preposition in: as,—
  - Antiochïae, celebri quondam urbe (Arch. 4), at Antioch, once a famous city.
  - Albae constiterunt in urbe munita (Phil. iv. 6), they halted at Alba, a fortified town.
- d. A possessive pronoun or an adjective implying possession may take an appositive in the genitive case agreeing in gender, number, and case with an implied noun or pronoun (§ 197. e): as,—

in nostro omnium fletu (Mil. 92), amid the tears of us all.

ex Anniānā Milonis domo (Att. iv. 3) [= ex Annī Milonis domo], out of Annius Milo's house.

# 2. Predicate Agreement.

The Predicate noun may agree (1) with the subject, being connected with it by the copula or a copulative verb (§ 176. a), or (2) with the direct object of a verb.

- 185. A descriptive noun used to form a predicate is called a Predicate Nominative (or other case, according to the construction).
- a. The case of the predicate after the copula and copulative verbs is the same as that of the subject ( $\S$  176. b): as,—

pācis semper auctor fuī (Lig. 28), I have always been an adviser of

quae pertinācia quibusdam, eadem aliīs constantia vidērī potest (Marc. 31), what may seem obstinacy to some, may seem to others consistency.

ēius mortis sedētis ultūrēs (Mil. 79), you sit as avengers of his death. ego patronus exstitī (Rosc. Am. 5), I have come forward as an advocate.

b. A predicate noun referring to two or more singular nouns is in the plural: as,—

consules creantur Caesar et Servilius (B. C. iii. 1), Caesar and Servilius are elected consuls.

c. For Predicate Accusative, see under that case, § 239. a.

# II. ADJECTIVES.

# 1. Rules of Agreement.

186. (Rule 2.) Adjectives, Adjective Pronouns, and Participles agree with their nouns in *Gender, Number*, and *Case*.

vir fortis, a brave man.
illa mulier, that woman.
urbium māgnārum, of great cities.
cum ducentīs mīlitibus, with 200 soldiers.
imperātor victus est, the general was beaten.

NOTE. — All rules for the agreement of adjectives apply also to adjective pronouns and to participles.

Adjectives are either Attributive or Predicate.

a. An Attributive adjective simply qualifies its noun without the intervention of a verb or participle, expressed or implied.

bonus imperātor, a good commander. stellae lūcidae, bright stars.

- b. All other adjectives are called Predicate adjectives.
- 1. A predicate adjective, like a predicate noun, may be connected with the subject by esse or a copulative verb expressed or implied (see § 176. a): as,—

stellae lücidae erant, the stars were bright.

- 2. After verbs of naming, calling, making, etc., an adjective may be used as a predicate accusative like a noun (see § 239. a).
- 3. A predicate adjective may be used in apposition like a noun (see c, below).
- c. Predicate adjectives in apposition follow the rules of agreement of other adjectives (see § 186, above): as,—

Scīpionem vīvum vīdī, I saw Scipio in his lifetime (lit. living).

d. With two or more nouns the adjective is regularly plural, but sometimes agrees with the nearest (especially when attributive). Thus. —

Nīsus et Euryalus prīmī (Æn. v. 294), Nisus and Euryalus first. Caesaris omnī et grātiā et opibus fruor (Fam. i. 9, 21), I enjoy all Cæsar's favor and resources.

- **187.** One adjective may belong in sense to two or more nouns of different genders.
  - a. In such cases -
  - 1. An attributive adjective agrees with the nearest noun: as, —

multae operae ac laboris, of much trouble and toil.

vīta morēsque mei, my life and character.

sī rēs, sī vir, sī tempus ūllum, dīgnum fuit (Mil. 19), if any thing, if any man, if any time was fit.

2. A predicate adjective may agree with the nearest, if the nouns form one connected idea: as,—

factus est strepitus et admurmurātiō (Verr. i. 45), a noise of assent was made (noise and murmur).

Note. — This is only when the Copula agrees with the nearest subject ( $\S$  205. d).

b. But generally a predicate adjective will be masculine, if nouns of different genders mean living beings; neuter, if things without life: as,—

uxor deinde ac liberi amplexi (Liv. ii. 40), then his wife and children embraced him.

labor (M.) voluptāsque (F.), societāte quādam inter sē nātūrālī sunt iūncta (N.) (id. v. 4), labor and delight are bound together by a certain natural alliance.

NOTE. - If nouns of different genders include both male beings and things without life, a predicate adjective is sometimes masculine, sometimes neuter, and sometimes agrees in gender with the nearest if that is plural: as, ---

rex regiaque classis una profecti (Liv. xxi. 50), the king and the royal fleet set out together.

nātūrā inimīca sunt lībera cīvitās et rēx (id. xliv. 24), by nature a free state and a king are hostile.

lēgātos sortēsque orāculi exspectandās (id. v. 15), that the ambassadors and the replies of the oracle should be waited for.

c. Two or more abstract nouns of the same gender may have a predicate adjective in the neuter plural (cf. § 189. c): as, —

stultitia et timiditas et iniustitia . . . sunt fugienda (Fin. iii. 39), folly, rashness, and injustice are [things] to be shunned.

d. A collective noun may take an adjective of a different gender and number agreeing with the gender and number of the individuals implied (Synesis, § 182. a): as, -

pars certare parati (Æn. v. 108), a part ready to contend. duo milia relicti (Liv. xxxvii. 39), two thousand were left.

# 2. Adjectives used Substantively.

188. Adjectives are often used as Nouns (substantively), the masculine usually to denote men or people in general of that kind, the feminine women, and the neuter things: as, ---

omnēs, all men (everybody). māiorēs, ancestors. Romani, Romans.

omnia, all things (everything). minores, descendants. barbarī, barbarians.

REMARK. — The plural of adjectives, pronouns, and participles is very common in this use. The singular is rare except in a few words which have become practically nouns. See below and § 189. a.

a. Certain adjectives have become practically nouns, and are often modified by other adjectives. Thus, —

tuus vicinus proximus, your next-door neighbor.

propinqui ceteri, his other relatives.

b. When any ambiguity would arise from the substantive use of an adjective, a noun must be added. Thus,—

bonī, the good; omnia, everything (all things); but -

potentia omnium rērum, power over everything. [omnium alone would mean all men.]

c. Many adjectives are used substantively either in the singular or the plural, with the added meaning of some noun which is understood from constant association: as,—

Africus [ventus], the south-west wind.

vitulīna [caro], veal (calf's flesh).

fera [bestia], a wild beast.

patria [terra], the fatherland.

d. A noun is sometimes used as an adjective, and may then be modified by an adverb: as,—

victor exercitus, the victorious army.

servum pecus, a servile troop.

admodum puer, quite a boy (young).

magis vir, more of a man (more manly).

- e. A few adverbs appear to be used like adjectives. Such are -
- 1. obviam: as, --

fit obviam, he goes to meet (becomes in the way of).

contrā, contradicting some previous adjective, and so in a manner repeating it: as,—

alia probabilia, contra alia dīcimus (Off. ii. 7), we call some things probable, others the opposite (not probable).

3. palam: as, ---

palam res est, the thing is all out.

- 189. Neuter adjectives are used substantively in the following special senses:—
- a. The neuter singular may denote either a single object or an abstract quality: as,—

rapto vivere, to live by plunder.

in āridō, on dry ground.

b. The neuter plural is used to signify objects in general having the quality denoted, and hence may stand for the abstract idea: as,—

honesta, honorable deeds (in general).

omnēs fortia laudant, all men praise bravery (brave things).

c. A neuter adjective may be used as an appositive or predicate noun with a noun of different gender (cf. § 187. c): as,—

trīste lupus stabulīs, the wolf is a grievous thing for the sheepfold.
varium et mūtābile semper fēmina, woman is ever a changing and fickle
thing.

d. A neuter adjective is used in agreement with an Infinitive or a Substantive Clause: as,—

istūc ipsum non esse (Tusc. i. 12), that very "not to be." hūmānum est errāre, to err is human.

aliud est errāre Caesarem nolle, aliud nolle miserērī (Lig. 16), it is one thing to be unwilling that Caesar should err, another to be unwilling that he should pity.

#### 3. Possessives.

190. Possessive and other derivative adjectives are often used in Latin where the English has the possessive case, or a noun with a preposition (cf. §§ 184. d, 197. a): as,—

pūgna Cannēnsis, the fight at Cannæ. C. Blossius Cūmānus, Caius Blossius of Cumæ. aliēna domus, another man's house.

a. Possessive and other derivative adjectives are often used substantively to denote some special class or relation (see § 197. d): as,—

nostrī, our countrymen or men of our party. Sullānī, the veterans of Sulla's army.

# 4. Adjectives with Adverbial Force.

191. An adjective agreeing with the subject or object is often used to qualify the action of the verb, having the force of an adverb: as,—

prīmus vēnit, he came first (was the first to come). laetī audiēre, they were glad to hear. erat Rōmae frequēns (Rosc. Am. 16), he was often at Rome.

# 5. Comparatives and Superlatives.

192. When two qualities of an object are compared, both adjectives are in the comparative: as,—

longior quam latior acies erat (Liv. xxvii. 48), the line was longer than it was broad (or, rather long than broad).

- a. Where magis is used, both adjectives are in the positive: as, clārī magis quam honestī (Jug. 8), more renowned than honorable.
- 193. (RULE 5.) Superlatives (and more rarely comparatives) denoting order and succession—also medius, ceterus, relicus—usually designate not what object, but what part of it, is meant: as,—

summus mons, the top of the hill.

reliqui captivi, the rest of the prisoners.

in colle medio (B. G. i. 24), half way up the hill (on the middle of the hill).

Note. — A similar use is found in such expressions as serā (multā) nocte, late at night. But medium viae, the middle of the way; multum diei, much of the day, also occur.

#### III. PRONOUNS.

#### t. Personal Pronouns.

- **194.** The Personal Pronouns have, in general, the same constructions as nouns.
- a. The personal pronouns are not expressed as subjects, except for distinction or emphasis (compare § 346. d): as,—

tē vocō, I call you; but

quis mē vocat? ego tē vocō, who is calling me? I (emphatic) am calling you.

b. (RULE 6.) The personal pronouns have two forms for the genitive plural, that in -um being used partitively (§ 216), and that in -i oftenest objectively (cf. § 213. 2): as,—

māior vestrūm, the elder of you.

habētis ducem memorem vestrī, oblītum suī (Cat. iv. 19), you have a leader who thinks (is mindful) of you and forgets (is forgetful of) himself.

pars nostrūm, a part (i.e. some) of us.

Note. — The genitives nostrūm, vestrūm are occasionally used objectively (§ 217): as, cupidus vestrūm (Verr. iii. 224), fond of you; custos vestrūm (Cat. iii. 29), the guardian of you (your guardian).

#### 2. Demonstrative Pronouns.

195. Demonstrative pronouns are used either adjectively or substantively.

As adjectives, they follow the rules for the agreement of adjectives (§§ 186, 187).

As substantives, they are equivalent to personal pronouns. This use is regular in the oblique cases, especially of is. Thus,—

I. Personal: -

Caesar et exercitus ēius, Cæsar and his army (not suus). [But, Caesar exercitum suum dīmīsit, Cæsar disbanded his [own] army.] hīs Caesar ita respondit, to them Cæsar thus replied.

2. Adjective : -

hōc proeliō factō, after this battle was fought (this battle having been, etc.). eōdem proeliō, in the same battle.

[For special significations of the demonstratives, see § 102.]

- a. The demonstratives are sometimes used as pronouns of reference, to indicate with emphasis a noun or phrase just mentioned: as,
  - nüllam virtüs aliam mercēdem dēsīderat praeter hanc laudis (Arch. 28), virtue wants no other reward except that [just spoken of] of praise.
- b. But the demonstrative as a pronoun of reference is commonly omitted, or some other construction is preferred: as,—

memoriae artem quam oblīvionis mālo, I prefer (like more) the art of memory to (than) [that] of forgetfulness.

c. When a quality or act is ascribed with emphasis to a person or thing already named, is or idem (often with the concessive quidem) is used to indicate that person or thing: as,—

vincula, et ea sempiterna (Cat. iv. 7), imprisonment, and that perpetual. legionem neque eam plenissimam despiciebant (B. G. iii. 2), they despised the single legion, and that not a very full one.

tuus dolor hümänus is quidem sed, etc., your grief is human, to be sure, but, etc.

d. An adjective pronoun usually agrees with an appositive or predicate noun, if there be one, rather than with the word to which it refers (cf. § 199): as,—

hīc labor hōc opus est, this is the toil, this the task [namely, revocāre gradum, which would regularly take a neuter pronoun].

e. Idem, the same, is often equivalent to an adverb or adverbial phrase (also, too, yet, at the same time): as,—

ōrātiō splendida et grandis et eadem in prīmīs facēta (Brut. 273), an oration, brilliant, able, and very witty, too.

f. The intensive ipse, self, is used with any of the other pronouns or a noun for the sake of emphasis: as,—

turpe mihi ipsī vidēbātur (Cic.), even to me (to me myself) it seemed disgraceful.

id ipsum, that very thing.

REMARK. — The emphasis of ipse is often expressed in English by just, very, mere, etc. (see above examples).

g. Ipse is often used alone, substantively, as an emphatic pronoun of the third person: as,—

mihi satis, ipsīs non satis (Cic.), enough for me, not for themselves.

beātōs illōs quī cum adesse ipsīs non licēbat aderant tamen (id.), happy they who, when it was not allowed them to attend in person, still were there.

di capiti ipsius generique reservent (Æn. vii. 484), may the gods hold in reserve [such a fate] to fall on his own and his son-in-law's head.

h. Ipse is often used alone, substantively, to emphasize an omitted subject of the first or second person: as, —

vöbīscum ipsī recordāminī (Cic.), remember in your own minds (yourselves with yourselves).

i. Ipse, used substantively, sometimes refers to a principal personage, to distinguish him from subordinate persons: as, —

ipse dīxit (cf. αὐτὸς ἔφα), HE (the Master) said it.

k. Ipse is often (is rarely) used instead of a reflexive. (Cf. § 196. i.)

I. Ipse usually agrees with the subject, even when the real emphasis is in English on a reflexive in the predicate: as, —

më ipse consolor, I console myself. [Not më ipsum.)

# 3. Reflexive Pronouns.

196. (RULE 7.) The Reflexive pronoun (\$\overline{6}\$),¹ and usually its corresponding possessive (\$\overline{8}\$uus), are used in some part of the predicate to refer to the subject of the sentence or clause: as,—

virtūs sē novit, virtue knows itself.
promisit sē ventūrum [esse], he promised that he would come.
Brūtus amīcum suum occīdit. Brutus killed his friend.

- a. In a subordinate clause of a compound sentence there is a double use of reflexives.
- 1. The Reflexive may always be used to refer to the subject of its own clause (*Direct Reflexive*): as,
  - ex quō iūdicārī potest quantum habeat in sē bonī cōnstantia (B. G. i. 40), from which it can be determined how much good firmness possesses (has in itself).
  - [Caesar] noluit eum locum vacare, ne Germani e suis finibus transirent (B. G. i. 28), Cæsar did not wish this place to lie vacant, for fear the Germans would cross over from their territories.
- 2. If the subordinate clause expresses the words or thought of the subject of the main clause, the reflexive is regularly used to refer to that subject (*Indirect Reflexive*): as,—

petiërunt ut sibi liceret (B. G. i. 30), they begged that it might be allowed them (the petitioners).

- Iccius nuntium ad eum mittit, nisi subsidium sibi submittatur, etc. (B.G. ii. 6), sends him a message that unless relief be furnished him (Iccius), etc.
- sī obsidēs ab eīs (the Helvetians) sibi (Cæsar, who is the speaker) dentur, sē (Cæsar) cum eīs pācem esse factūrum (B. G. i. 14), [Cæsar said] that if hostages were given him by them, he would make peace with them.

Note. — Sometimes is or ipse is used as an Indirect Reflexive either from careless writing or to avoid ambiguity (cf. i): as, —

quī sē ex hīs minus timidos exīstimārī vellent, non sē hostem verērī, sed angustiās itineris et māgnitūdinem silvārum quae intercēderent inter

<sup>1</sup> This seems to have been originally the personal pronoun of the third person, but it came by use to be purely reflexive.

ipsos (the persons referred to by se above) atque Ariovistum . . . timere dicebant (B. G. i. 39), those of them who wished to be thought less timid said they did not fear the enemy, but were afraid of the narrows and the wast extent of the forests which were between themselves and Ariovistus.

- audīstis nūper dīcere lēgātōs Tyndaritānōs Mercurium quī sacrīs anniversāriīs apud eōs colerētur Verris imperiō esse sublātum (Verr. iv. 84), you have just heard the ambassadors from Tyndaris say that the statue of Mercury which was worshipped with annual rites among them was taken away, etc. [Here Cicero wavers between apud eōs colēbātur, a remark of his own, and apud sē colerētur, the words of the lēgātī. eōs does not strictly refer to the ambassadors, but to the people the Tyndaritānī.]
- 3. If the subordinate clause does not express the words or thought of the main subject, the reflexive is not regularly used, though it is occasionally found. Thus,
  - sunt ita multī ut eos carcer capere non possit (Cat. ii. 22), they are so many that the prison cannot hold them. [Here se could not be used.]
  - ibi in proximīs villīs ita bipartītō fuērunt, ut Tiberis inter eōs et pōns interesset (Cat. iii. 5), there they stationed themselves in the nearest farmhouses, in two divisions, in such a manner that the Tiber and the bridge were between them (the divisions). [Here inter sē might be used, but it would refer to a purpose of the soldiers.]
- b. The reflexive in a subordinate clause sometimes refers to the subject of a suppressed main clause: as,—
  - Paetus, omnēs libros quos frāter suus relīquisset mihi donāvit (Att. ii. 1, 12), Paetus gave me all the books which (as he said in the act of donation) his brother had left (him).
- c. The reflexive may refer to any noun in its own clause which is so emphasized as to become in a manner the *subject of discourse* (cf. the note): as,—
  - Socratem cīvēs suī interfēcērunt, Socrates was put to death by his own fellow-citizens.
  - quī poterat salūs sua cuiquam non probārī (Mil. 81), how can any one fail to approve his own safety? [In this and the preceding example the emphasis is preserved in English by the change to the passive.]
  - hunc sī secūtī erunt suī comitēs (Cat. ii. 10), this man, if his companions follow him.
- Note. Occasionally the clause to which the reflexive really belongs is absorbed: as. —

studeo sanare sibi ipsos (Cat. ii. 17), I am anxious to cure these men for their own benefit (i.e. ut sani sibi sint).

suō sibi gladiō (Plautus), with his own sword. [Here the clause is too indefinite to be supplied.]

d. The reflexive may follow a verbal noun or adjective: as, — sui laus, self-praise.

impotens sui (Q. C.), without self-control.

e. The reflexive may refer to the subject implied in an infinitive or verbal abstract used indefinitely: as,—

bellum est sua vitia nosse (Cic.), it is a fine thing to know one's own faults.

cui proposita sit conservatio sui (Fin. v. 37), one whose aim is selfpreservation.

f. Inter sē, among themselves, is regularly used to express reciprocal action: as, —

cohaerentia inter sē, things consistent with each other.

g. **Suus** is used for *one's own* as emphatically opposed to *that of others*, in any part of the sentence and with reference to any word in it: as, —

suis flammis delete Fidenas (Liv. iv. 33), destroy Fidena with its own fires (the fires kindled by that city, figuratively). [Cf. Cat. i. 32.]

h. For reflexives of the first and second persons the oblique cases of the personal pronouns (meī, tuī, etc.) are used (see § 98. 2, a): as, — mortī mē obtulī (Mil. 94), I have exposed myself to death.

hinc te reginae ad limina perfer (An. i. 389), do you go (bear yourself) hence to the queen's threshold.

i. Ipse is often (is rarely) used instead of an indirect reflexive, to avoid ambiguity; and in later writers is sometimes found instead of the direct reflexive (cf. a. 2 and 3): as,—

cūr dē suā virtūte aut dē ipsīus dīligentiā dēspērārent (B. G. i. 40), why (he asked) should they despair of their own courage or his diligence?

#### 4. Possessive Pronouns.

197. The Possessive pronouns are derivative adjectives, which take the gender, number, and case of the noun to which they belong, not those of the possessor: as,—

Caesar uxorem suam repudiāvit, Casar put away his wife.

haec sunt mea ornamenta, these are my jewels. [mea is neut. pl., though the speaker is a woman.]

- a. (RULE 8.) The possessive pronouns are used instead of the genitive of a personal pronoun.
  - 1. Always instead of the Possessive Genitive: as, -

domus mea, my house. [Never domus mei.] pater noster, our father. [Never pater nostri.]

NOTE I. — In different languages the ideas associated with possessives are not always the same, and hence idiomatic uses differ. Thus my eulogist may, in Latin, be laudātor nostrī (Att. i. 14, 6), or, like the English, laudātor noster (see Att. i. 16, 5), with a different conception of the relation.

NOTE 2. — The possessive cūius, -a, -um, is rare: as, cūium pecus? whose flock? The genitive cūius is generally used instead.

2. Rarely instead of the Objective Genitive. Thus, regularly,—suī dēspiciēns, disdainful of himself.

non solum sui deprecatorem, sed etiam accusatorem mei, not only a mediator for himself, but an accuser of me (Att. xi. 8).

# But occasionally, -

ea quae faciëbat, tuā sē fidūciā facere dīcēbat (Verr. v. 176), what he was doing, he said he did relying on you (with your reliance).

b. The possessives have often the acquired meaning of peculiar to, or favorable or propitious towards the person or thing spoken of: as,—

[petere] ut suā clēmentiā āc mānsuētūdine ūtātur, they asked (they said) that he would show his [wonted] clemency and humanity.

īgnōrantī quem portum petat nūllus suus ventus est (Sen. Ep. 71. 3), to him who knows not what port he is bound to, no wind is fair (his own).

c. The possessives are regularly omitted (like other pronouns) when they are plainly implied in the context: as,—

amīcum grātulātur, he greets his friend. [amīcum suum would be distinctive, his friend (and not another's); suum amīcum, emphatic, his own friend.]

d. Possessives are often used substantively (§ 190. a): as,—nostrī, our countrymen, or men of our party. suōs continēbāt (B. G. i. 15), he held his men in check.

flamma extrēma meōrum (Æn. ii. 431), last flames of my countrymen.

e. (RULE 9.) A possessive representing a genitive may have a genitive in apposition (§ 184. d): as,—

meā sõlīus causā, for my sake only.
nostra omnium patria, the country of us all.

#### 5. Relative Pronouns.

Note. — A Relative pronoun is properly an Adjective, in agreement with some word expressed or implied either in its own clause, or (often) in the antecedent (demonstrative) clause. The full construction would require the antecedent to be expressed in both clauses, with more commonly a corresponding demonstrative to which the relative would refer: as,—

iter in ea loca facere coepit, quibus in locis esse Germānōs audiēbat (B. G. iv. 7), he began to march into those PLACES in which PLACES he heard the Germans were.

Relatives serve two uses : -

- 1. as Nouns (or adjectives) in their own clause: as, --
- eī qui Alesiae obsidēbantur, those who were besieged at Alesia.
- 2. as Connectives : as, -
- T. Balventiō, qui superiore anno primum pilum duxerat, Titus Balventio, who the year before had been a centurion of the first rank.

In this latter use they are often equivalent merely to a demonstrative: as,—
quae cum ita sint (= cum ea ita sint), since these things are so.

**197a.** A Relative pronoun indicates a relation between its own clause and some substantive. This substantive is called the Antecedent of the relative.

Thus, in the sentence -

eum nihil delectabat, quod fas esset, nothing pleased him which was right, the relative quod connects its antecedent nihil with the predicate fas esset, indicating a relation between the two.

198. (Rule 3.) A Relative agrees with its Antecedent in Gender and Number; but its Case depends on the construction of the clause in which it stands: as,—

puer qui venit abiit, the boy who came has gone away.

liber quem legis meus est, the book you are reading is mine.

via qua ambulat ducit ad urbem, the path he walks in leads to the city.'

This rule applies to all relative words so far as they are variable in form: as, quālis, quantus, quīcumque.

Note. — The relative may be the subject or object in its own clause, or a modifier of either: as, —

eos enim cives pūgna illa sustulerat quibus non modo vīvīs sed etiam victoribus incolumis et florens cīvitās esse posset (Phil. xiv. 23).

- a. If a relative has two or more antecedents, it follows the rules for the agreement of predicate adjectives (§§ 186, 187): as,
  - filium et filiam, quos valde dilexit, uno tempore amisit, he lost a son and a daughter at the same time, whom he dearly loved.
  - ötium atque divitiae quae prīma mortālēs putant (Sall. Cat. 36), idleness and wealth which men count the first (objects of desire).
- 199. A relative generally agrees in gender and number with an appositive or predicate noun in its own clause, rather than with an antecedent of different gender or number (cf. § 195. d): as,
  - mare etiam quem Neptūnum esse dīcēbās (N. D. iii. 52), the sea, too, which you said was Neptune. [Not quod.]
  - Thebae ipsae, quod Boeotiae caput est (Liv. xlii. 44), even Thebes, which is the chief city of Baotia. [Not quae.]
  - NOTE. This rule is occasionally violated: as, -
  - flumen quod appellatur Tamesis (B. G. v. 11), a river which is called the Thames.
- a. A relative occasionally agrees with its antecedent in case (by attraction): as,
  - sī aliquid agās eōrum quōrum cōnsuēstī (Fam. v. 14), if you should do something of what you are used to do. [For eōrum quae.]
- b. A relative may agree in gender and number with an implied antecedent: as,
  - quartum genus . . . qui aere vetere alieno vacillant (Cat. ii. 21), a fourth class, that are staggering under old debts.
- Note. So regularly when the antecedent is implied in a possessive pronoun: as,
  - nostra qui adsumus salūs, the safety of us who are present. [Here qui agrees with the nostrūm implied in nostra.]
- **200.** The antecedent noun sometimes appears in both clauses; but usually only in the one that precedes. Sometimes it is wholly omitted. Thus,
  - a. The antecedent may be repeated in the relative clause: as, —
  - locī nātūra erat haec quem locum nostrī dēlēgerant (B. G. ii. 18), the nature of the ground which our men had chosen was this.

- b. The antecedent may appear only in the relative clause: as, -
- quās rēs in consulātu nostro gessimus attigit hīc versibus (Arch. 28), he has touched in verse the things which I did in my consulship.
- urbem quam statuō vestra est (Æn. i. 573), the city which I am founding is yours.
- Note. In this case a demonstrative (is, ille, or hic) usually stands in the antecedent clause: as,
  - quae pars cīvitātis calamitātem populō Rōmānō intulerat, ea prīnceps poenās persolvit (B. G. i. 12), that part of the state which had brought disaster on the Roman people was the first to pay the penalty.
- c. The antecedent may be entirely omitted, especially if it is indefinite: as,
  - quī decimae legionis aquilam ferebat (B. G. iv. 25), [the man] who bore the eagle of the tenth legion.
  - quī cōgnōscerent mīsit (id. i. 21), he sent [men] to reconnoitre (who should, etc.).
- d. A predicate adjective (especially a superlative) agreeing with its antecedent in gender and number may stand in the relative clause: as,
  - vasa ea quae pulcherrima apud eum viderat (Verr. iv. 63), those most beautiful vessels which he had seen at his house. [Nearly equivalent to the vessels of which he had seen some very beautiful ones.]
- e. The phrase id quod or quae res is used (instead of quod alone) to refer to a group of words or an idea:—
  - [obtrēctātum est] Gabīniō dīcam anne Pompēiō? an utrīque id quod est vērius? (Manil. 57), an affront is offered shall I say to Gabinius or to Pompey? or which is truer to both?
  - multum sunt in vēnātiōnibus . . . quae rēs vīrēs alit (B. G. iv. 1), they spend much time in hunting, which [practice] increases their strength. [Cf. B. G. ii. 5.]
  - NOTE. But quod alone often occurs: as, -
  - Cassius noster, quod mihi magnae voluptātī fuit, hostem reiēcerat (Fam. ii. 10), our friend Cassius which was a great satisfaction to me—had driven back the enemy.
- **201.** In the use of relatives, the following points are to be observed:—
- a. The relative is never omitted in Latin, as it often is in English. Thus, —

liber quem mihi dedistī, the book you gave me. is sum quī semper fuī. I am the same man I always was.

b. A relative clause in Latin often takes the place of some other construction in English; particularly of a participle, an appositive, or a noun of agency: as,—

leges quae nunc sunt, the existing laws (the laws which now exist).

Caesar qui Galliam vicit, Caesar the conqueror of Gaul (who conquered Gaul).

c. In formal or emphatic discourse, the relative clause usually comes first, often containing the antecedent noun (cf. § 200. b): as,—

quae mala cum multīs patimur, ea nōbīs leviōra videntur, the evils we suffer [in common] with many, seem to us lighter.

d. The antecedent, when in apposition with the main clause, or with some word of it, is put in the relative clause: as, —

fīrmī amīcī, cūius generis est māgna pēnūria, steadfast friends, a class of which there is a great lack (of which class).

e. A relative may stand (even with another relative or an interrogative) at the beginning of a sentence or clause, where in English a demonstrative must be used: as,—

quae quī audiēbant, and those who heard this (which things). quae cum ita sint, and since these things are so. quōrum quod simile factum (Cat. iv. 13), what deed of theirs like this?

f. 1. A relative adverb is regularly used in referring to an antecedent in the Locative case: as, —

mortuus Cūmīs quō sē contulerat (Liv. ii. 21), having died at Cuma, whither he had retired. [Here in quam urbem might be used, but not in quās.]

2. So, often, to express any relation of place instead of the formal relative pronoun (cf. whence, whereto, wherewith): as, —

locus quo aditus non erat, a place to which (whither) there was no access. regna, unde genus ducis, the kingdom from which you derive your race.

g. The relatives qui, qualis, quantus, quot, etc., are often rendered simply by As<sup>1</sup> in English (§ 106. b): as,—

idem quod semper, the same as always.

tālis dux quālem Hannibalem novimus, such a chief as we know Hannibal (to have been).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The English as in this use is strictly a relative, though invariable in form.

h. The general construction of relatives is found in clauses introduced by relative or temporal adverbs: as, ubi, quō, unde, cum, quārē.

# 6. Indefinite Pronouns.

202. The Indefinite pronouns are used to indicate that some person or thing is meant, without designating what one.

Note. — For the meanings of the compounds of qui and quis, see § 105.

a. Of the particular indefinites meaning some or any (quis, quispiam, nesciō quis, aliquis, quidam), the simple quis is least definite, quidam most definite: as,—

dīxerit quis (quispiam), some one may say.

aliqui philosophi ita putant, some philosophers think so. [quidam would mean certain particular persons defined to the speaker's mind.]

habitant hīc quaedam mulierēs pauperculae, some poor women live here [i.e. some women he knows of; some women or other would be aliquae or nesciō quae].

b. In a particular negative aliquis (aliqui) is regularly used, where in a universal negative quisquam (subst.) or ullus (adj.) would be required: as,—

iūstitia numquam nocet cuiquam quī eam habet (Cic.), justice never does harm to anybody who possesses it. [alicui would mean to somebody who possesses it.]

sine aliquo metu, [you cannot do this] without some fear. sine ullo metu, [you may do this] without any fear.

NOTE. — These pronouns are used in like manner in conditional and other sentences (§ 105. h): as, —

sī quisquam, ille sapiēns fuit (Læl. 9), if any man was (ever) a sage, he was.

dum praesidia ülla fuērunt (Rosc. Am. 126), while there were any armed forces (till they ceased to be).

c. Of the general indefinites, quivis and quilibet (any you will), utervis (either you will, of two), are used chiefly in affirmative, quisquam and tillus (any at all) in negative, interrogative, or conditional clauses: as,—

cuivīs potest accidere quod cuiquam potest, what can happen to any [one] man can happen to any man [whatever].

non cuivis homini contingit adire Corinthum, it is not every man's luck to go to Corinth. [non cuiquam would mean not any man's.]

minus habeō vīrium quam vestrūm utervīs, I have less strength than either of you.

quidlibet modo aliquid (Cic.), anything you will, provided it be something. cur cuiquam mīsī prius, why did I send to anybody before [you]?

d. The distributives quisque (every), uterque (each), and unus quisque (every single one) are used in general assertions. They are equivalent to a plural, and sometimes have a plural verb (cf. § 205. c. 2): as,—

bonus liber melior est quisque quō māior, the larger a good book is, the better (each good book is better [in the same measure] as it is larger). ambō exercitūs suās quisque abeunt domōs, both armies go away, every man to his home.

uterque utrique erat exercitus in conspectu, each army was in sight of the other (each to each).

ponite ante oculos unumquemque regum, set before your eyes each of the kings.

e. Quisque is regularly placed in a dependent clause, if there is one: quo quisque est sollertior, hoc docet îracundius (Rosc. Com. 31), the keener-witted a man is, the more impatiently he teaches (as each is so, etc.).

Note. — Quisque is generally post-positive. Thus, suum cuique, to every man his own.

f. Nemo, no one, is used: either

As a substantive: as, —

nēmo fit repente turpissimus, no one suddenly becomes absolutely base.

As an adjective pronoun: as, -

vir nēmo bonus (Leg. ii. 41), no good man.

Note. — Even when used as a substantive, nemo may take a noun in apposition: as, —

nēmō scriptor, nobody [who is] a writer.

### 7. Alius and Alter.

203. The expressions alter, . . . alter, the one . . . the other, alius . . . alius, one . . . another, may be used in pairs to denote either division of a group or reciprocity of action: as, —

arma ab aliis posita ab aliis erepta sunt (Marc. 31), arms were laid down by some and were snatched from others.

alterī dīmicant, alterī victorem timent (Fam. vi. 3), one party fights, the other fears the victor.

hī frātrēs alter alterum amant, these brothers love one another.

alius alium percontamur, we ask each other.

a. Alius means simply other, another (of an indefinite number); alter, the other (of two), often the second in a series; cēterī and reliquī, all the rest, the others; alteruter, one of the two. Thus,—

quid aliud agis, what else are you doing (what other thing)?

uni epistulae respondi, venio ad alteram (Fam. ii. 17. 6), one letter I have answered, I come to the other.

alterum genus (Cat. ii. 19), the second class.

iēcissem ipse mē potius in profundum ut cēterēs conservarem (Sest. 45), I should have rather thrown myself into the deep to save the rest.

Servilius consul, reliquique magistratus (B. C. iii. 21), Servilius the consul and the rest of the magistrates.

cum sit necesse alterutrum vincere (Fam. vi. 3), when it must be that one of the two should prevail.

b. Alius and alter are often used to express one as well as another (the other) of the objects referred to: as,—

alter consulum, one of the [two] consuls.

aliud est maledicere, aliud accūsāre (Cic.), it is one thing to slander, another to accuse.

c. Alius repeated in another case, or with an adverb from the same stem, expresses shortly a double statement: as, —

alius aliud petit, one man seeks one thing, one another (another seeks another thing).

alius aliā viā cīvitātem auxērunt (Liv. i. 21), they enlarged the State, each in his own way.

#### IV. VERBS.

# 1. Verb and Subject.

204. (Rule 4.) A Finite verb agrees with its Subject in Number and Person: as, —

ego statuō, I resolve.

silent leges inter arma, the laws are dumb in time of war.

NOTE. — In verb-forms containing a participle, the participle agrees with the subject in gender and number (§ 186): as,—

örātiö est habita, the plea was delivered. bellum exortum est, a war arose.

a. A verb having a relative as its subject takes the person of the expressed or implied antecedent: as, —

adsum quī fēcī (Æn. ix. 427), here am I who did it.

6. The verb sometimes agrees in number, a participle in the verbform in number and gender, with an appositive or predicate noun: as,—

non omnis error stultitia est dicenda (Div. ii. 90), not every error should be called folly.

Corinthus lumen Graeciae exstinctum est, Corinth, the light of Greece, is put out.

# 2. Double Subject.

205. Two or more singular subjects take a verb in the plural: as,—

pater et avus mortui sunt, his father and grandfather are dead.

- a. When subjects are of different *persons*, the verb is in the *first* person rather than the *second*, and in the *second* rather than the third: as,
  - sī tū et Tullia valētis ego et Cicerō valēmus (Fam. xiv. 5), if you and Tullia are well, Cicero and I are well. [Notice that the first person is also first in order, not last, as by courtesy in English.]

Note. — In case of different genders a participle in a verb-form follows the rule for predicate adjectives; see § 187. b, c.

b. If the subjects are connected by disjunctives, or if they are considered as a single whole, the verb is usually singular: as,—

quem neque fides neque iŭsiūrandum neque illum misericordia repressit (Ter. Ad. 306), not faith, nor oath, nay, nor mercy, checked him.

Senātus populusque Rōmānus intellegit (Fam. v. 8), the Roman Senate and people understand. But, — neque Caesar neque ego habitī essēmus (Fam. xi. 20), neither C. nor I should have been considered.

c. A collective noun commonly takes a verb in the singular: as, — Senātus haec intellegit (Cat. i. 2), the Senate is aware of this.

ad hiberna exercitus redit (Liv. xxi. 22), the army returns to winter quarters.

1. But the plural is often found with collective nouns when individuals are thought of: as, —

pars praedās agēbant (Jug. 32), a part brought in booty.
cum tanta multitūdō lapidēs conicerent (B. G. ii. 6), when such a crowd
was throwing stones.

Note. — The point of view may change in the course of a sentence: as,—equitatum omnem ... quem habebat praemittit, qui videant (B. G. i. 15), he sent ahead all the cavalry he had, to see (who should see).

- 2. Quisque has very often a plural verb, but may be considered as in apposition with a plural subject implied (cf. § 202. d): as,
  - sibi quisque habeant quod suum est (Plaut. Curc.), let every one keep his own (let them keep every man his own).
- d. When a verb belongs to two or more subjects separately, it may agree with one and be understood with the others: as,—

intercēdit M. Antōnius et Cassius tribūnī plēbis (B. C. i. 2), Antony and Cassius, tribunes of the people, interpose.

# 3. Incomplete Sentences.

- 206. The subject of the verb is sometimes omitted. Thus,—
- a. A personal pronoun, as subject, is usually omitted unless emphatic. Thus, —

loquor, I speak. But, ego loquor, it is I that speak.

b. An indefinite subject is often omitted.

This is usually a plural, as in dicunt, ferunt, perhibent (they say); but sometimes singular, as in inquit (Tusc. i. 93), one says (referring to a class of reasoners just spoken of).

- c. The verb is often omitted. Thus, -
- I. Dīcō, faciō, agō, and other verbs in familiar phrases: as,—quōrsum haec [spectant], what does this aim at?
  ex ungue leōnem [cōgnōscēs], you will know a lion by his claw.
  quid multa, what need of many words (why should I say much)?
  quid? quod, what of this, that, etc. (what shall I say of this, that, etc.)?
  [A form of transition.]
- 2. The copula sum, very commonly in the indicative and infinitive, rarely (except by late authors) in the subjunctive: as,—

tū coniūnx (Æn. iv. 113), you [are] his wife.
omnia praeclāra rāra (Læl. 79), all the best things are rare.
accipe quae peragenda prius (Æn. vi. 136), hear what is first to be accomplished. [Direct: quae peragenda prius?]

#### V. PARTICLES.

#### 1. Adverbs.

- 207. (Rule 10.) Adverbs are used to modify Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs.
- a. A Demonstrative or Relative adverb is often equivalent to the corresponding Pronoun with a preposition (see § 201. f): as,
  - eo mīlitēs imponere (B. G. i. 42), on them (thereon, on the horses) he puts the soldiers.
  - qui eum necăsset unde ipse nătus esset (Rosc. Am. 71), one who should have killed his own father (him whence he had his birth).
- b. The adverbs propius, near; proximē, next (like the adjectives propior, proximus); prīdiē, the day before; postrīdiē, the day after, are sometimes followed by the accusative (see § 261. a).

The adverbs palam, openly; procul, afar; simul, at the same time, are sometimes followed by the ablative (see § 261. b).

- NOTE. Pridie and postridie are often used with the genitive. Clam, without the knowledge of, may take the accusative, the ablative, or the genitive (§ 261. c).
- c. Many perfect participles used as nouns regularly retain the adverb which modified them as participles: as, —

praeclārē factum, a glorious deed (a thing gloriously done).

d. Very rarely adverbs are used with nouns which contain a verbal idea (cf.  $\S$  188. d): as, —

populus lātē rēx (Æn. i. 21), a people ruling far and wide. hinc abitiō (Plaut.), a going away from here.

#### 2. Conjunctions.

Note. — For the classification of conjunctions, see §§ 154, 155.

208. Copulative and Disjunctive Conjunctions connect similar constructions, and are regularly followed by the same case or mood that precedes them: as,—

- scriptum senātuī et populō (Cat. iii. 10), written to the senate and people. ut eās [partīs] sānārēs et confirmārēs (Mil. 68), that you might cure and strengthen those parts.
- neque meā prūdentiā neque hūmānīs consiliīs fretus (Cat. ii. 29), relying neither on my own foresight nor on human wisdom.
- a. Conjunctions of Comparison (as ut, quam, tanquam, quasi) also commonly connect similar constructions: as,
  - his igitur quam physicis potius crēdendum existimās (Div. ii. 37), do you think these are more to be trusted than the natural philosophers?
  - ut non omne vinum sic non omnis natūra vetustate coacescit (Cat. Maj. 65), as every wine does not sour with age, so [does] not every nature.
  - Cf. përge ut înstituistî (Rep. ii. 22), go on as you have begun.
- b. Two or more co-ordinate words, phrases, or sentences are often put together without the use of conjunctions (Asyndeton): as, —

omnēs dī, hominēs, all gods and men. līberī, servī, freemen and slaves.

- 1. With more than two co-ordinate words, etc., a conjunction, if used at all, must be used with all (or all except the first): as,
  - aut aere aliēnō aut māgnitūdine tribūtōrum aut iniūriā potentiōrum (B. G. vi. 13), by debt, excessive taxation, or oppression on the part of the powerful.
  - summā fidē et constantiā et iūstitiā, with perfect good faith, [and] consistency, and justice. [Not fidē constantiā et iūstitiā, as in English.]
- 2. But words are often so divided into groups that the members of the groups omit the conjunction (or express it), while the groups themselves express the conjunction (or omit it): as,
  - propudium illud et portentum, L. Antônius însigne odium omnium hominum (Phil. xiv. 8), that wretch and monster, Lucius Antonius, the abomination of all men.
- 3. The enclitic -que is sometimes used with the last member of a series, even when there is no grouping apparent: as, —

võce vultū mõtūque (Brut. 110), by voice, expression, and gesture. multõ südöre labõre vigiliīsque (Caecil. 72), with much fatigue, toil, and waking.

c. Two adjectives belonging to the same noun are regularly connected by a conjunction: as, —

multae et graves causae, many weighty reasons.

d. Many words properly adverbs may be used correlatively, and so become conjunctions, partly or wholly losing their adverbial force (see § 107). Such are —

cum . . . tum, while . . . so also (both . . . and).

tum ... tum, now ... now.

modo . . . modo, now . . . now.

simul . . . simul, at the same time . . . at the same time (at once . . . as well as).

quā ... quā, now ... now.

nunc . . . nunc, now . . . now.

Thus, -

cum difficile est, tum ne aecum quidem (Læl. 26), not only is it difficult, but even unjust.

modo ait modo negat (Ter. Eun. 712), now he says yes, now no.

simul grātiās agit, simul grātulātur (Q. C. vi. 7, 15), he thanks him and at the same time congratulates him.

e. Two conjunctions of similar meaning are often used together, for the sake of emphasis or to bind a sentence more closely to what precedes: as, at vero, but in truth, still, however; itaque ergo, accordingly then; namque, for; et-enim, for, you see (§ 156. d).

f. For conjunctions introducing subjunctive clauses, see §§ 316 ff.

#### 3. Negative Particles.

Note. - For the list of negative particles, see § 149. e.

- 209. In the use of the Negative Particles, the following points are to be observed:—
- a. Two negatives are equivalent to an affirmative, as in English (§ 150): as, nēmō nōn videt, everybody sees.

But a general negation is not destroyed -

- 1. By a following ne ... quidem, not even, or non modo, not only: as, —.
  - numquam tū non modo otium, sed no bellum quidem nisi nefarium concupistī (Cat. i. 25), not only have you never desired repose, but you have never desired any war except one which was infamous.
- 2. By succeeding negatives, each introducing a separate sub-ordinate member: as, —

eaque nesciëbant nec ubi nec qualia essent (Tusc. iii. 4), they knew not where or of what kind these things were.

- 3. By neque introducing a co-ordinate member: as, -
- nequeò satis mirārī neque conicere (Ter. Eun. 547), I cannot wonder enough nor conjecture.
- b. The negative is frequently joined to some other word. Hence the forms of negation in Latin differ from those in English in many expressions. Thus,—

neque (nec), and not, but not (neither . . . nor) (not et non).

nec quisquam, and no one (nor any one) (not et nēmō).

nüllî or neutrî crēdō, I do not believe either (I believe neither) (not nôn crēdō üllī).

negō haec esse vēra, I say this is not true (I deny that these things are true) (not dīcō nōn esse).

sine üllö periculö (less commonly cum nüllö), with no danger (without any danger).

nihil unquam audīvī iūcundius, I never heard anything more amusing (nothing more amusing have I ever heard).

c. A statement is often made emphatic by denying its contrary (Litotes): as, —

non haec sine numine divom eveniunt (An. ii. 777), these things do not occur without the will of the gods.

haec non nimis exquiro (Att. vii. 18, 3), not very much, i.e. very little.

Note. — Compare nonnullus, nonnemo, etc. (§ 150. a).

d. The particle immō, nay, is used to contradict some part of a preceding statement or question, or its form; in the latter case, the same statement is often repeated in a stronger form, so that immō becomes nearly equivalent to yes (nay but, nay rather): as,—

causa igitur non bona est? immo optima (Att. ix. 7), is the cause then not a good one? on the contrary, the best.

e. Minus, less (especially with si, if, quō, in order that), and minimē, least, often have a negative force. Thus,—

sī minus possunt, if they cannot. [For quō minus, see §§ 319. c, 331. e.] audācissimus ego ex omnibus? minimē (Rosc. Am. 2), am I the boldest of them all? by no means (not at all).

[For do not in Prohibitions, see § 269. a.]

OMPANY, QUESTIONS.

- 210. Questions are either Direct or Indirect.
  - 1. A Direct Question gives the exact words of the speaker; as, quid est? what is it?
- 2. An Indirect Question gives the substance of the question. adapted to the form of the sentence in which it is quoted. It depends on a verb or other expression of asking, doubting, knowing, or the like: as. -

rogavit quid esset, he asked what it was. [Direct : quid est, what is it?] nescio ubi sim, I know not where I am. [Direct: ubi sum, where am I?]

Questions in Latin are introduced by special interrogative words, and are not distinguished by the order of words, as in English.

NOTE. — For the list of Interrogative Particles, see § 149. d.

a. (RULE 11.) A question of simple fact, requiring the answer YES or NO, is formed by adding the enclitic -ne to the emphatic word: as, -

tune id veritus es (Cic.), did YOU fear that?

hīcine vir usquam nisi in patriā moriētur (Mil. 104), shall THIS man die anywhere but in his native land?

b. The interrogative particle -ne is sometimes omitted: as, —

patere tua consilia non sentis (Cat. i. 1), do you not see that your schemes are manifest (you do not see, eh)?

NOTE - In such cases no sign of interrogation appears except in the punctuation, and it is often doubtful whether the sentence is a question or an ironical statement.

c. (RULE 12.) When the enclitic -ne is added to a negative word, as in nonne, -an affirmative answer is expected. The particle num suggests a negative answer. Thus, -

nonne animadvertis (N. D. iii. 89), do you not observe? num dubium est (Rosc. Am. 107), there is no doubt, is there?

d. The particle -ne often when added to the verb, less commonly when added to some other word, has the force of nonne: as, —

meministīne mē in senātū dīcere (Cat. i. 7), don't you remember my saying in the Senate?

rēctēne interpretor sententiam tuam (Tusc. iii. 37), do I not rightly interpret your meaning?

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Note. - This was evidently the original meaning of -ne; but in most cases the negative force was lost, and -ne was used merely to express a ques-So the English interrogative no? shades off into eh?

e. A question concerning some special circumstance is formed by prefixing to the sentence an interrogative pronoun or adverb (\$ 106). as in English: as, -

quid est quod iam amplius exspectes (Cat. i. 6), what is there for you to look for any more?

quo igitur haec spectant (Fam. vi. 6), whither, then, is all this tending? Icare, ubi es (Ov. M. viii. 232), Icarus, where are you?

REMARK. - A question of this form becomes an exclamation by changing the inflection of the voice: as, qualis vir erat! what a man he was! quot calamitates passi sumus! how many misfortunes have we suffered!

f. The particles nam (enclitic) and tandem may be added to interrogative pronouns and adverbs for the sake of emphasis: as, —

quisnam est, pray who is it? [quis tandem est? would be stronger.] ubinam gentium sumus (Cat. i. 9), where in the world are we? in qua tandem urbe hoc disputant (Mil. 7), in what city, pray, do they maintain this?

In indirect questions num loses its peculiar force (§ 210. c).

# Double Ouestions.

211 A Double or Alternative Question is an inquiry as to which of two or more supposed cases is true.

In Double or Alternative Questions, utrum or -ne, whether, stands in the first member; an, anne, or, annon, necne, or not, in the second; and usually an in the third, if there be one: as, -

utrum nescīs, an pro nihilo id putās (Fam. x. 26), is it that you don't know, or do you think nothing of it?

quaero servosne an liberos (Rosc. Am. 74), I ask whether slaves or free.

REMARK. — Annon is more common in direct questions, necne in indirect.

a. The interrogative particle is often omitted in the first member; in which case an or -ne (anne, necne) may stand in the second; as, -

Gabīniō dīcam anne Pompēiō an utrīque (Man. 57), shall I say to Gabinius, or to Pompey, or to both?

sunt haec tua verba necne (Tusc. iii. 41), are these your words or not?

- b. Sometimes the first member is omitted or implied, and an (anne) alone asks the question, usually with indignation or surprise: as,
  - an tū miseros putās illos (Tusc. i. 13), what! do you think those men wretched?
- c. Sometimes the second member is omitted or implied, and utrum may ask a question to which there is no alternative: as,—

utrum in clārissimīs est cīvibus is, quem . . . (Flacc. 45), is he among the noblest citizens, whom, etc.?

d. The following table exhibits the various forms of alternative questions:—

# Question and Answer.

212. There is no one Latin word in common use meaning simply yes or no. In answering a question affirmatively, the verb or some other emphatic word is generally repeated; in answering negatively, the verb, etc., with non or a similar negative: as,—

valetne, is he well? valet, yes (he is well).
eratne tēcum, was he with you? non erat, no (he was not).
numquidnam novī, there is nothing new, is there? nihil sānē, oh! nothing.

/ a. An intensive or negative particle, a phrase, or a clause is sometimes used to answer a direct question: thus,—

# I. For yes:

etiam, even so, yes, etc. ita vērõ, certainly (so in truth), etc. vērõ, in truth, true, no doubt, yes. sānē quidem, yes, no doubt, etc. ita, so, true, etc. ita est, it is so, true, etc. sānē, surely (soundly), no doubt, doubtless, etc. certē, certainly, most assuredly, unquestionably, etc.

# 2. For NO :--

non, not [so]. nullo modo, by no means.
minime, not at all (in the smallest degree, cf. § 209. e).
minime vēro, no, not by any means; oh! no, etc.
non quidem, why, no; certainly not, etc.
non hercle vēro, why, gracious, no (certainly not, by Hercules)!

in a me one

§ 212.]

an a

Examples are :--

utrum, amount

quidnam? an laudātiones? ita, why, what? is it eulogies? just so.

aut etiam aut non respondere (Acad. ii. 104), to answer (categorically) ves or no.

estne ut fertur forma? sānē (Ter. Eun. 360), is [she] as handsome as they say she is (is her beauty as it is said)? oh! yes.

fugisne hinc? ego vērō ac lubēns (Ter. And. 337), will you clear out from here? indeed I will, and be glad to.

miser ergo Archelaus? certe sī iniūstus (Tusc. v. 35), was Archelaus wretched then? certainly, if he was unjust.

haec contemnitis? minime (De Or. ii. 295), do you despise these things? not at all.

volucribusne et feris? minime vero (Tusc. i. 104), to the birds and beasts? why, of course not.

ex tuī animī sententiā tu uxōrem habēs? non hercle, ex meī animī sententiā (De Or. ii. 260), Lord! no, etc.

b. In answering a double question, one member of the alternative, or some part of it, must be repeated: as, -

tune an frater erat, was it you or your brother? ego [eram], it was I.

REMARK. - From double questions must be distinguished those which are in themselves single, but of which some detail only is alternative. These have the common disjunctive particles aut or vel (-ve): as, -

quaero num iniūstē aut improbē fēcerit (Off. iii. 54), I ask whether he acted unjustly or even dishonestly.

Here there is no double question. The only inquiry is whether the man did either of the two things supposed, not which of the two he did.

# CONSTRUCTION OF CASES.

# I. GENITIVE.

NOTE. — The Genitive is regularly used to express the relation of one noun to another. Hence it is sometimes called the adjective case, to distinguish it from the Dative and the Ablative, which may be called adverbial cases. Its uses may be classified as follows:-

- I. Of Possession (§ 214).
  - 2. Of Source developed into Material (§ 214. e).
- I. GENITIVE WITH | 3. Of Quality (§ 215).

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4. Of the Whole, after words designating a Part (Partitive, § 216).

5. With Nouns of Action and Feeling (§ 217). .

Nouns:

- II. GENITIVE WITH (1. Relative adjective (or Verbal) (§ 218. a, b).
  - ADJECTIVES: 2. Of Specification (later use) (§ 218. c).
- III. GENITIVE WITH ( I. Of Memory, Feeling, etc. (§§ 219, 221-23). 2. Of Accusing, etc. (Charge or Penalty) (§ 220). VERBS:

# I. GENITIVE WITH NOUNS.

213. (RULE 14.) A noun used to limit or define another. and not meaning the same person or thing, is put in the Genitive.

This relation is most frequently expressed in English by the preposition of: as,-

librī Ciceronis, the books of Cicero, Cicero's books.

talentum aurī, a talent of gold.

vir summae virtūtis, a man of the greatest courage.

pars militum, a part of the soldiers.

cultus deorum, worship of the gods.

vacātiō laboris, a respite from toil.

victor omnium gentium, conqueror of all nations.

In most constructions the genitive is either Subjective or Objective.

I. The Subjective genitive denotes that to which the noun limited belongs, or from which it is derived (§ 214).

( 2. The Objective genitive denotes that towards which an action or feeling is directed (§ 217 ff.).

This distinction is illustrated by the following example. phrase amor patris, love of a father, may mean love felt by a father, a father's love (subjective genitive), or love towards a father (objective genitive).

214. (RULE 15.) The Subjective Genitive is used with a noun to denote (1) the Author or Owner, (2) the Source or the Material, (3) the Quality.

#### 1. Possessive Genitive.

a. I. The Possessive Genitive denotes the author or owner: as, -

librī Ciceronis, the books of (written by) Cicero. Alexandri ecus, Alexander's horse.

2. For the genitive of possession a possessive or derivative adjective is often used,—regularly for the possessive genitive of the personal pronouns (§§ 190, 197. a): as,—

liber meus, my book. [Not liber mei.] aliëna pericula, other men's dangers. [But also aliörum.] Sullāna tempora, the times of Sulla. [Oftener Sullae.]

b. The noun limited is understood in a few expressions: as,—ad Castoris [aedēs], to the [temple] of Castor (cf. English, St. Peter's). Hectoris Andromachē (Æn. iii. 319), Hector's [wife] Andromache. Flaccus Claudī, Flaccus [slave] of Claudius.

c. The possessive genitive is often in the predicate, connected with its noun by a verb: as,—

haec domus est patris mei, this house is my father's.

tūtēlae nostrae [eos] dūximus (Liv.), we held them [to be] in our protec-

compendi facere, to save (make of saving).

lucri facere, to get the benefit of (make of profit).

iam mē Pompēī tōtum esse scīs (Fam. ii. 13), you know I am now all for Pompey (all Pompey's).

REMARK. — These genitives bear the same relation to the examples in § 213 that a predicate noun bears to an appositive (§§ 184, 185).

d. An infinitive or a clause, when used as a noun, is often limited by a genitive in the predicate: as,—

neque sui iūdici [erat] dēcernere (B. C. i. 35), nor was it for his judgment to decide (nor did it belong to his judgment).

cūiusvīs hominis est errāre (Cic.), it is any man's [liability] to err.

timidi est optare necem (Ov. M. iv. 115), it is for the coward to wish for death.

sapientis (not sapiens) est pauca loqui, it is wise (the part of a wise man) to say little.

REMARK. — This construction is regular with adjectives of the third declension instead of the neuter nominative (see the last example).

Note. — A derivative or possessive adjective may be used for the genitive in this construction, and *must* be used for the genitive of a personal pronoun: as. —

mentīrī non est meum (not meī), it is not for me to lie.

hūmānum (for hominis) est errāre, it is man's nature to err (to err is human).

#### 2. Genitive of Material.

e. The genitive may denote the Substance or Material of which a thing consists (compare §§ 216, 244): as,—

talentum aurī, a talent of gold. flūmina lactis, rivers of milk.

f. A limiting genitive is sometimes used instead of a noun in apposition (§ 183): as, —

nomen insaniae (for nomen insania), the word madness.

oppidum Antiochiae (for oppidum Antiochia, the regular form), the city
of Antioch. [A very loose use of this genitive, cf. e.]

# 3. Genitive of Quality.

**215.** The genitive is used to denote Quality, but only when the quality is modified by an adjective : as,—

vir summae virtūtis, a man of the highest courage. [But not vir virtūtis.] māgnae est dēlīberātiōnis, it is an affair of great deliberation. ille autem suī iūdicī (Nep. Att. 9), but he [a man] of independent (his own) judgment.

- a. The genitive of quality is found in the adjective phrases **ēius** modī, cūius modī (equivalent to tālis, such; quālis, of what sort).
- b. The genitive of quality, with numerals, is used to define measures of length, depth, etc. (Genitive of measure): as,—

fössa trium pedum, a trench of three feet [in depth]. mürus sēdecim pedum, a wall of sixteen feet [high].

c. For Genitives of Quality used to express indefinite value, see § 252. a.

#### 4. Partitive Genitive.

- 216. (RULE 16.) Words denoting a Part are followed by the genitive of the Whole to which the part belongs.
  - a. Partitive words, followed by the genitive, are—
  - 1. Nouns or pronouns: as, -

pars mīlitum, part of the soldiers. quis nostrūm, which of us (cf. e, below)? nihil erat reliquī, there was nothing left. 2. Numerals, Comparatives, Superlatives, and Pronominal words like alius, etc.: as, —

alter consulum, one of the [two] consuls.

unus tribunorum, one of the tribunes (cf. c, below).

plūrimum tōtīus Galliae equitātū valet (B. G. v, 3), is strongest in cavalry of all Gaul.

maior fratrum, the elder of the brothers.

3. Neuter adjectives and pronouns, used as nouns: as, -

tantum spatī, so much [of] space.

aliquid nummorum, a few pence (something of coins).

id loci (or locorum), that spot of ground. Also at that time.

id temporis, at that time (§ 240. b).

plana urbis, the level parts of the town.

quid novī, what news (what of new)?

REMARK. — The genitive of adjectives of the third declension is rarely used partitively. Thus, —

nihil novī (gen.), nothing new; but

nihil memorābile (nom.), nothing worth mention. [Not nihil memorābilis.]

4. Adverbs, especially of Quantity and Place: as, -

satis pecūniae, money enough (enough of money).

parum ōtī, not much ease (too little of ease).

tum temporis, at that point of time (then of time).

ubinam gentium sumus, where in the world are we (where of nations)?

b. The poets and later writers often use the partitive genitive after adjectives, instead of a noun in its proper case: as, —

sequimur të sancte deorum (Æn. iv. 576), we follow thee, O holy deity.
[For sancte deus.]

c. Cardinal numerals regularly take the Ablative with **ē** (ex) or d**ē** instead of the Partitive Genitive. So also quidam commonly, and other words occasionally: as,—

ūnus ex tribūnīs, one of the tribunes. [But also, ūnus tribūnōrum.] minumus ex illīs (Jug. 11), the youngest of them. quīdam ex mīlitibus, certain of the soldiers.

d. Uterque, both (properly each), and quisque, each, with Nouns are used as adjectives in agreement, but with Pronouns always take a partitive genitive: as,—

uterque consul, both the consuls; but, uterque nostrum, both of us. unus quisque vostrum, each one of you.

e. Numbers and words of quantity including the whole of any thing, take a case in agreement, and not the partitive genitive. So also words denoting a part if only that part is thought of: as,—

nos omnes, all of us (we all). [Not omnes nostrum] but nostrum omnium. quot sunt hostes, how many of the enemy are there? multi milites, many of the soldiers.

# 5. Objective Genitive.

The Objective Genitive is used with Nouns, Adjectives, and Verbs.

217. (RULE 17.) Nouns of action, agency, and feeling govern the genitive of the object: as,—

dēsīderium ōtī, longing for rest.

grātia beneficī, gratitude for kindness.

fuga malörum, refuge from disaster.

precātio deorum, prayer to the gods.

NOTE. — This usage is an extension of the idea of belonging to (Possessive Genitive).

a. The objective genitive is sometimes replaced by a possessive or other derivative adjective (see § 197. a. 2): as,—

mea invidia, my unpopularity (the dislike of which I am the object). metus hostīlis (Jug. 41), fear of the enemy (hostile fear).

b. Rarely the objective genitive is used with a noun already limited by another genitive: as,—

animī multārum rērum percursiō (Tusc. iv. 31), the mind's traversing of many things.

c. A noun with a preposition is often used instead of the objective genitive: as,—

odium in Caesarem, hate of Cæsar. [Cf. odium Caesaris, note above.] merita ergā mē (Cic.), services to me.

excessus e vita (id.), departure from life. [Also, excessus vitae, Cic.]

# II. GENITIVE WITH ADJECTIVES.

218. Adjectives requiring an object of reference govern the objective genitive.

These are called Relative Adjectives (adiectiva relātīva) or Transitive Adjectives, and include the following:—

g. (RULE 18.) Adjectives denoting desire, knowledge, memory, filness, powers, hearing, guilt, and their opposites: as, —

avidus laudis, greedy of praise.

fastīdiōsus litterārum, disdaining letters.

iūris perītus, skilled in law. [So, also, the ablative, iūre, cf. § 253.]

reī mīlitāris imperītus, unskilled in military science.

rationis et orationis expertes, devoid of sense and speech.

vostrī memor, mindful of you.

plēnus fideī, full of good faith.

impotens îrae, ungovernable in anger.

particeps coniūrātionis, sharing in the conspiracy.

īnsons culpae, innocent of guilt.

b. (Rule 18.) Verbals in -ax (§ 164. l); also participles in -ns when used as adjectives, (i.e. to denote a disposition and not a particular act): as,—

tenacem propositi virum (Hor. Od. iii, 3), a man steadfast to his purpose. circus capax populi (Ov.), a circus big enough to hold the people.

sī quem tuī amantiōrem cōgnōvistī (Q. Fr. i. 1. 15), if you have become acquainted with any one more fond of you.

multitūdō īnsolēns bellī (B. C. ii. 36), a crowd unused to war.

NOTE. 1. — Participles in -ns, when used as participles, take the case regularly governed by the verb to which they belong: as,—

Tiberius sitiens sanguinem (Tac.), Tiberius [then] thirsting for blood.

NOTE 2. — Occasionally participial forms in -ns are treated as participles (see note 1), even when they express a disposition or character: as, —

virtūs quam aliī ipsam temperantiam dīcunt esse, aliī obtemperantem temperantiae praeceptīs et eam subsequentem (Tusc. iv. 30), observant of the teachings of temperance and obedient to her.

c. The poets and later writers use the genitive with almost any adjective, to denote that with reference to which the quality exists (Genitive of Specification): as,—

callidus reī mīlitāris (Tac. H. ii. 31), skilled in soldiership. pauper aquae (Hor. Od. iii. 30. 11), scant of water. fessī rērum (Æn. i. 178), weary of toil.

REMARK. — Adjectives of *feeling* are followed by the apparent genitive animi (really locative, cf. § 223. c): as, —

aeger animī, sick at heart.

confusus animi, disturbed in spirit.

## III. GENITIVE WITH VERBS.

The Objective Genitive is used with some verbs.

## 1. Remembering and Forgetting.

- 219. (RULE 19.) Verbs of Remembering and Forgetting take the Genitive of the object when they are used of a continued state of mind, but the Accusative when used of a single act: as,—
  - I. Genitive : -

recordāns superioris trānsmīssionis (Att. iv. 19), remembering your former crossing.

animus meminit praeteritōrum (Div. i. 63), the soul remembers the past. venit mihi in mentem illīus diēī, I bethink me of that day (it comes into my mind of that day).

obliviscere caedis atque incendiorum (Cat. i. 6), turn your mind from slaughter and conflagrations.

2. Accusative : -

tōtam causam oblītus est (Brut, 217), he forgot the whole case. pueritiae memoriam recordārī (Arch. 1), to recall the memory of childhood.

a. The Accusative is almost always used of a person or thing remembered by an eye-witness: as,—

memineram Paullum (Læl. 9), I remembered Paulus.

b. Recordor, recollect, recall, denotes a single act and is therefore almost always followed by the Accusative: as, —

recordāminī omnīs cīvīlīs dissēnsionēs (Cat. iii. 24), recall all the civil wars.

c. Verbs of reminding take with the accusative of the person a genitive of the thing; except in the case of a neuter pronoun, which is put in the accusative (cf. § 238.  $\delta$ ).

Catilina admonēbat alium egestātis, alium cupiditātis suae (Sall. Cat. 21), Catiline reminded one of his poverty, another of his cupidity.

ünum illud monēre tē possum, I can remind you of this one thing.

So admoneo, commoneo, commonefacio, commonefio. But moneo with the genitive is found only in late writers (cf. § 238. b. note).

Note. — All these verbs often take de with the ablative, and the accusative of nouns as well as of pronouns is sometimes used with them: as, —

saepius të admoneo dë syngraphä Sittiana (Fam. viii. 4, 5), I remind you again and again of the bond of Sittius.

officium vestrum ut vos malo cogatis commonerier (Plaut. Ps. 150), to be reminded of your duty.

## 2. Charge and Penalty.

220. (Rule 20.) Verbs of Accusing, Condemning, and acquitting take the genitive of the *charge* or *penalty*: as,—

arguit me furti, he accuses me of theft.

videō non tē absolūtum esse improbitātis, sed illos damnātos esse caedis (Verr. II. i, 72), I see, not that you were acquitted of outrage, but that they were condemned for homicide.

a. Peculiar genitives, under this construction, are —

capitis, as in damnare capitis, to sentence to death.

māiestātis [laesae], treason (crime against the dignity of the State).

repetundārum [rērum], extortion (lit. of an action for claiming back money wrongfully taken).

võti, in damnātus or reus võti, bound [to the payment] of one's vow; i.e. successful in one's effort.

pecuniae (damnare, iudicare, see note under 3, below).

dūplī, etc., as in dūplī condemnāre, condemn to pay twofold.

- b. Other constructions for the charge or penalty are -
- I. The ablative of price: regularly of a definite amount of fine, and often of indefinite penalties (cf. § 252. note): as,—

Frusinātēs tertiā parte agrī damnātī (Liv. x. 1), the people of Frusino condemned [to forfeit] a third part of their land.

vitia autem hominum atque fraudēs damnīs īgnōminiīs vinculīs verberibus exsiliīs morte damnantur (De Or. i. 194), but the vices and crimes of men are punished with fines, dishonor, chains, scourging, exile, death.

2. The ablative with de, or the accusative with inter, in idiomatic expressions: as, —

dē aleā, for gambling.

dē ambitū, for bribery.

inter sīcāriōs, as an assassin (among the assassins).

de vi et maiestatis damnati (Phil. 1, 21), convicted of assault and treason.

## 3. Verbs of Feeling.

- 221. Many verbs of Feeling take the genitive of the object which excites the feeling. Thus,—
- a. Verbs of pity, as misereor and miseresco, are followed by the genitive: as,—

miserēscite rēgis (Æn. viii. 573), pity the king.

miserēre animī non digna ferentis (id. ii. 144), pity a soul, etc.

But miseror, commiseror, bewail, take the accusative: as, — communem condicionem miserari (Mur. 55), bewail the common lot.

b. The impersonals miseret, paenitet, piget, pudet, taedet (or pertaesum est) take the Genitive of the cause of the feeling and the Accusative of the person affected: as,—

hos homines înfâmiae suae neque pudet neque taedet (Verr. i. 35), these men are neither ashamed nor weary of their dishonor. [Cf. it repenteth him of the evil.]

mē quidem miseret parietum ipsorum (Phil. ii. 69), for my part I pity the very walls.

c. An infinitive, a clause, or the accusative (possibly nominative) of a neuter pronoun may be used with these impersonal verbs (except miseret) instead of the genitive of a noun: as,—

mē paenitet haec fēcisse, I repent of having done this.
nihil quod paenitēre possit (Cic.), nothing that may cause repentance.

#### 4. Interest and Refert.

222. The impersonals interest and refert take the genitive of the person (rarely of the thing) affected: as,—

Clodi intererat Milonem perire (Mil. 56), it was the interest of Clodius that Milo should die.

video enim quid mea intersit, quid utriusque nostrum (Fam. vii. 23), for I see what is for my good and for the good of us both.

The subject of the verb is a neuter pronoun or a substantive clause.

a. Instead of the Genitive of a Personal Pronoun the corresponding Possessive is used in the ablative singular feminine with interest or refert: as,—

quid tuā id rēfert? māgnī (Ter. Ph. 723), how does that concern you? much. [See also the last example above.]

b. The accusative with ad is used with interest and refert to express the thing with reference to which one is interested: as,—

magni ad honorem nostrum interest (Fam. xvi. 1), it is of great consequence to our honor.

refert ad früctüs (Varr. R. R. i. 16), it makes a difference as to the crop.

## 5. Verbs of Plenty and Want.

223. Some verbs of Plenty and Want govern the genitive: as,—

quid est quod défénsionis indigeat? (Rosc. Am. 34), what is there that needs defence?

satagit rērum suārum, he has his hands full with his own affairs.

Note. — But verbs of plenty and want more commonly take the ablative (see §§ 243,  $\alpha$ , 248.  $\epsilon$ ), except egeō, indigeō, satagō.

### 6. Other Verbs.

a. The genitive sometimes follows potion, get possession of; as always in the phrase potini rerum, to be master of affairs. Thus,—

illīus rēgnī potīrī (Fam. i. 7, 5), to become master of that kingdom.

Cleanthes solem dominari et rerum potiri putat (Ac. ii. 126), Cleanthes thinks the sun holds sway and is lord of the universe.

But potior usually takes the ablative (see § 249).

- b. Some other verbs rarely take the Genitive —
- I. By analogy with those mentioned in § 221: as, -

neque hūius sīs veritus fēminae prīmāriae (Ter. Ph. 971), and you had no respect for this high-born lady.

2. As akin to adjectives which take the genitive: as, -

fastīdit meī (Plaut. Aul. 243), he disdains me. [Cf. fastīdiōsus.] studet tuī (quoted N. D. iii. 72), he is zealous for you. [Cf. studiōsus.]

c. The apparent genitive animi (really Locative) is used with a few verbs of feeling and the like (cf. § 218. c. Rem.): as, —

Antiphō mē excruciat animī (Ter. Ph. 187), Antipho tortures my mind (me in my mind).

# IV. PECULIAR GENITIVES.

d. A genitive occurs rarely in Exclamations, in imitation of the Greek (Genitive of Exclamation): as,—

dī immortālēs, mercimōnī lepidī (Plaut. Most. 912), good heavens! what a charming bargain!

e. The genitive is often used with the ablatives causā, grātiā, for the sake of; ergō, because of; and the indeclinable instar, like; also with prīdiē, the day before; postrīdiē, the day after; tenus, as far as: as.—

honoris causa, with due respect (for the sake of honor). verbi grātia, for example.

ēius lēgis ergō, on account of this law.

ecus înstar montis (Æn. ii. 15), a horse like (the image of) a mountain. laterum tenus (Æn. x. 210), as far as the sides.

#### II. DATIVE.

NOTE. — The Dative seems to be closely akin to the Locative (cf. οίκοι, at home, with οίκφ, to a house), and must have had the primary meaning of to or towards. But this local meaning appears in Latin only in the poets (§ 225. b. 3) and in some adverbial forms (as eō, illō, thither).

The uses of the Dative, arranged practically, are the following: -

I. As Indirect Object { I. With Transitives (§ 225).

(general use):

(general

2. Special or Idiomatic 2. Of Agency (with Gerundive) (§ 232).
3. Of Purpose or End (predicate use) (§ 233).

4. Of Fitness, etc. (with Adjectives) (§ 234).
5. Of Reference (datīvus commodī) (§§ 235, 236).

224. (RULE 21.) The Dative is used of the object indirectly affected by an action.

This is called the Indirect Object (§ 177). It is usually denoted in English by the Objective with to or for. Thus,—

dat librum puero, he gives a book to the boy. cedite tempori, yield to the occasion. provincia Ciceroni obtigit, the province fell by lot to Cicero.

# r. Indirect Object with Transitives.

225. The Dative of the Indirect Object with the Accusative of the Direct may be used with any transitive verb whose meaning allows (see § 177): as,—

do tibi librum, I give you a book.

illud tibi affīrmō (Fam. i. 7, 5), this I assure you.

a. Many verbs have both a transitive and an intransitive use (§ 177. note). These take either the Accusative with the Dative, or the Dative alone: as,—

hanc pecuniam tibi credo, *I trust this money to you*. [Transitive.] in hac re tibi credo, *I trust you in this*. [Intransitive.]

- b. Certain verbs implying motion vary in their construction between the Dative of the Indirect Object and the Accusative of the End of Motion (§ 258. b). Thus,—
- 1. Some verbs take the Accusative (with or without a preposition), instead of the Indirect Object, when the idea of motion prevails (§ 258): as,
  - litteräs quäs ad Pompēium scrīpsī (Att. iii. 9), the letter which I have written [and sent] to Pompey. [Cf. non quo haberem quod tibi scriberem (Att. iv. 4), not that I had anything to write to you.]

litterae extemplo Romam scriptae (Liv. xli. 16), a letter was immediately written [and sent] to Rome.

hostës in fugam dat (B. G. v. 51), he puts the enemy to flight. [Cf. ut më dem fugae (Att. viii. 23), to take to flight.]

2. On the other hand, many verbs usually followed by the Accusative with ad or in, take the Dative when the idea of motion is merged in some other idea: as,—

nec quicquam quod non mihi Caesar detulerit (Fam. iv. 13), and nothing which Caesar did not communicate to me.

eum librum tibi mīsī (id. vii. 19), I sent you that book.

cūrēs ut mihi vehantur (id. viii. 4), take care that they be conveyed to me. cum alius aliī subsidium ferrent (B. G. ii. 26), while one lent aid to another.

- In poetry the End of Motion is often expressed by the dative (see § 258. note 1).
- c. For the Dative of the person and the Accusative of the thing after verbs of threatening and the like, see § 227. f.
- d. Certain verbs may take either the Dative of the person and the Accusative of the thing, or (in a different sense) the Accusative of the person and the Ablative of the thing: as,—

donat coronas suis, he presents wreaths to his men; or,

donat suos coronis, he presents his men with wreaths.

āram sanguine adspergere (N. D. iii. 88), to sprinkle the altar with blood. ārae sanguinem adspergere, to sprinkle blood upon the altar.

Such are dono, impertio, induo, exuo, adspergo, inspergo, circumdo, circumfundo, prohibeo, intercludo, and in poetry accingo, implico, and similar verbs.

NOTE 1. — Interdico, forbid, takes either (1) the dative of the person and the accusative of the thing, or (2) the dative of the person and the ablative of the thing: as,—

interdīxit histrionibus scaenam (Suet. Dom. 7), he forbade the actors [to appear on] the stage (he prohibited the stage to the actors). [Cf. interdictum est mare Antiātī populo (Liv. viii. 14), the sea was forbidden to the people of Antium.]

aqua et igni alicui interdicere, to forbid the use of fire and water.

Note 2.— The Dative with the Accusative is used in poetry with many verbs of preventing, protecting, and the like, which usually take the Accusative and Ablative. Interclūdō and arceō sometimes take the Dative and Accusative, even in prose: as,—

hisce omnis aditüs ad Sullam interclüdere (Rosc. Am. 110), to shut these men off from all access to Sulla (close to them every approach). [Cf. uti frümentö commeätüque Caesarem interclüderet (B. G. i. 48), to shut Caesar off from grain and supplies.]

hunc (oestrum) arcēbis pecorī (Georg. iii. 154), you shall keep this away from the flock. [Cf. illum arcuit Galliā (Phil. v. 37), he excluded him from Gaul.]

sõlstitium pecori defendite (Ecl. vii. 47), keep the summer heat from the flock.

e. Verbs which in the active voice take the accusative and dative retain the dative when used in the passive: as,—

haec nobis nuntiantur, these things are told us. [Active: haec [quidam] nobis nuntiat.]

Crassō dīvitiae non invidentur, Crassus is not envied for his wealth.

[Active: Crassō dīvitiās non invident.]

decem talenta oppidānīs imperantur, ten talents are exacted of the townspeople. [Active: imperat oppidānīs decem talenta.]

# 2. Indirect Object with Intransitives.

226. The Dative of the Indirect Object may be used with any Intransitive verb whose meaning allows: as,—

cedant arma togae (Phil. ii. 20), let arms give place to the gown.

Caesarī respondet, he replies to Cæsar.

Caesarī respondētur, Casar is replied to (see § 230).

crēdimus nūntiō, we believe the messenger.

nuntio creditur, the messenger is believed.

respondī māximīs crīminibus (Phil. ii. 36), I have answered the heaviest charges.

NOTE 1.—Intransitive verbs have no Direct Object. The Indirect Object, therefore, in these cases stands alone (but cf. § 225. a).

Note 2. — Cēdō, yield, sometimes takes the Ablative of the thing along with the Dative of the person: as,—

cedere alicui possessione hortorum (Mil. 75), to give up to one the possession of a garden.

a. Many phrases consisting of a noun with the copula sum or a copulative verb are equivalent to an intransitive verb and take a kind of indirect object (cf. § 235): as,—

auctor esse alicui, to advise or instigate one (cf. persuādeō).
quis huic reī testis est (Quinc. 37), who testifies (is witness) to this fact?
is fīnis populātionibus fuit (Liv. ii. 30), this put an end to the raids.

b. The dative is sometimes used without a copulative verb in a sense approaching that of the genitive (cf. §§ 227. d, 235. a): as,—

lēgātus Caesarī, a lieutenant to Cæsar (i.e. a man assigned to Cæsar). hērēs frātrī suō, his brother's heir (heir to his brother). ministrī sceleribus, agents of crime.

Note. — The cases in a and b differ from the constructions of § 227, note 2, and § 235 in that the dative is more closely connected in idea with some single word to which it serves as an indirect object.

# 3. Dative with Special Verbs.

Many verbs of apparently transitive meaning in English correspond to verbs intransitive in Latin. Thus, —

227. (RULE 22.) Most verbs signifying to favor, help, please, trust, and their contraries; also to believe, persuade, command, obey, serve, resist, envy, threaten, pardon, and spare, take the dative: as,—

cūr mihi invidēs, why do you envy me? mihi parcit atque īgnōscit, he spares and pardons me. īgnōsce patriō dolōrī (Liv. iii. 48), excuse a father's grief. nōn parcam operae (Fam. xiii. 27), I will spare no pains. sīc mihi persuāsī (Cat. M. 78), so I have persuaded myself. NOTE. I. — In these verbs the Latin retains an original intransitive meaning. Thus: invidere, to envy, was originally to look askance at one.

NOTE 2. — Some common phrases regularly take the dative precisely like verbs of similar meaning. Such are —

praestō esse, be on hand (cf. adesse).

mörem gerere, humor (cf. mörigeräri).

grātum facere, do a favor (cf. grātificārī).

dicto audiens esse, be obedient (cf. oboedire).

cui fidem habēbat (B. G. i. 19), in whom he had confidence (cf. confidebat).

So, also, many phrases where no corresponding verb exists. Such are —

bene (male, pulchrē, aegrē, etc.) esse, to be well (ill, etc.) off.

iniūriam facere, do injustice to.

diem dicere, bring to trial (name a day for, etc.).

agere grātiās, to express one's thanks.

habēre grātiam, to feel thankful.

referre grātiam, to repay a favor.

opus esse, be necessary.

damnum dare, inflict an injury.

acceptum (expensum) ferre (esse), to credit (charge).

honorem habere, to pay honor to.

a. Some verbs apparently of the same meanings take the Accusative.

Such are iuvo, adiuvo, help; laedo, injure; iubeo, order; deficio, fail; delecto, please. Thus,—

hīc pulvis oculum meum laedit, this dust hurts my eye. [Cf. multa oculis nocent, many things are injurious to the eyes.]

b. Some verbs are used transitively with the Accusative or intransitively with the Dative without perceptible difference of meaning.

Such are adulor (generally accusative), aemulor (rarely dative), comitor, despero, praestolor, medeor, medicor. Thus,—

adūlātus est Antōniō (Nep. Att. 8), he flattered Antony. adūlārī Nerōnem (Tac. Ann. xvi. 19), to flatter Nero.

c. Some verbs are used transitively with the Accusative or intransitively with the Dative with a difference of meaning.

parti civium consulunt (Off. i. 85), they consult for a part of the citizens.

cum tē cōnsuluissem (Fam. xi. 29), when I had consulted you. metuēns puerīs (Plaut. Am. 1113), anxious for the children.

nec metuunt deos (Ter. Hec. 772), they fear not even the gods.

prospicite patriae (Cat. iv. 3), have regard for the State.

prospicere sedem senectūtī (Liv. iv. 49), to provide a habitation for old age.

Note. — Fido and confido, trust, take the Dative or the Ablative: as, — legionis decimae cui quam māximē confidebat (B. G. i. 42), of the tenth legion, in which he had the utmost confidence.

multum natura loci confidebant (B. G. iii. 9), they had great confidence in the strength of their position (the nature of the place).

d. Some verbal nouns — as insidiae, ambush; invidia, envy — take the dative like the verbs from which they are derived: as, —

invidia consulī (Sall.), ill-will against the consul (cf. invideo).
obtemperātio lēgibus (Leg. 42), obedience to the laws (cf. obtempero).
sibi ipsī responsio (De Or. iii. 207), an answer to himself (cf. respondeo).

Note. — In these cases the dative depends immediately upon the verbal force of the noun and not on any complex idea (cf. § 226. a and b).

- e. The Dative is also used -
- With the impersonals libet (lubet), it pleases; licet, it is allowed: as. —

quod mihi māximē lubet (Fam. i. 8), what most pleases me. quasi tibi non licēret (Fam. vi. 8), as if you were not permitted.

2. With verbs compounded with satis, bene, and male: as, — mihi ipse numquam satisfaciō (Fam. i. 1), I never satisfy myself. optimō virō maledīcere (Deiot. 28), to speak ill of a most excellent man. pulchrum est benefacere reīpūblicae (Sall. Cat. 3), it is a glorious thing to benefit the State.

Note. — These are not real compounds, but phrases, and were apparently felt as such by the Romans. Thus, —

satis officio meo, satis illorum voluntati qui a me hoc petiverunt factum esse arbitrabor (Verr. v. 130), that enough has been done for, etc.

3. With the following: grātificor, grātulor, haereō (rarely), nūbō, permīttō, plaudō, probō, studeō, supplicō, excellō: as,—

haerentem capitī corōnam (Hor. S. i. 10, 49), a wreath clinging to the head. Pompēiō sē grātificārī putant (Fam. i. 1), they suppose they are doing Pompey a service.

Note. — Mīsceō and iungō sometimes take the dative (see § 248. a. Rem.). Haereō usually takes the ablative, with or without in.

f. Many verbs ordinarily intransitive often have an Accusative of the direct object with the Dative of the indirect (cf. § 225. a): as,—
cui cum rex crucem minitaretur (Tusc. i. 102), when the king threatened him with the cross.

imperat oppidanis decem talenta, he exacts of the townspeople ten talents.

## 4. Dative with Compounds.

228. (RULE 23.) Most verbs compounded with ad, ante, con, in, inter, ob, post, prae, pro, sub, super, and some with circum, take the dative of the indirect object: as,—

neque enim adsentior eis (Lael. 13), for I do not agree with them.

tempestātī obsequī artis est (Fam. i. 9, 21), it is a point of skill to yield to the weather.

omnibus negōtiīs non interfuit solum sed praefuit (id. i. 6), he not only had a hand in all matters, but took the lead in them.

quantum nātūra hominis pecudibus antecēdit (Off. i. 105), so far as man's nature is superior to brutes.

Note i. — In these cases the dative depends not on the preposition, but on the compound verb in its acquired meaning. Hence, if the acquired meaning is not suited to an indirect object, the original construction of the simple verb remains or some different construction arises. Thus, in convocat suos, he calls his men together, the idea of calling is not so modified as to make an indirect object appropriate. So, hominem interficere, to make way with a man (kill him). But in praeficere imperatorem bello, to put a man as commander-in-chief in charge of a war, the meaning is suited to an indirect object (see a and \( \epsilon \), and \( \Sigma \) 237. d).

Note 2.—Some of these verbs being originally transitive take also a direct object: as, nē offerāmus nos periculis (Off. i. 83), that we may not expose ourselves to perils.

a. Some compounds of ad, ante, ob, with a few others, have acquired a transitive meaning, and take the accusative: aš,—

nos oppugnat (Fam. i. 1), he opposes us. munus obire (Lael. 7), to attend to a duty.

b. The adjective obvius and the adverb obviam with a verb take the dative: as,—

sī ille obvius eī futūrus non erat (Mil. 47), if he was not intending to get in his way.

mihi obviam vēnistī (Fam. ii. 16, 3), you came to meet me.

c. When place or motion is distinctly thought of, the verbs of § 228 regularly take a noun with a preposition, not the dative: as, —

in visceribus inhaerere (Tusc. iv. 24), it remains fixed in the vitals.

hominī coniuncto mēcum (Tull. 4), to a man united to me.

cum hoc concurrit ipse Eumenes (Nep. Eum. 4, 1), with him Eumenes himself engages in combat (runs together).

quae ā cēterārum gentium more dissentiunt (Font. 30), which differ from the custom of all other nations.

obicitur contră istorum impetus Macedonia (Font. 44), Macedonia is set to withstand their attacks. [Cf. sī quis vöbīs error obiectus (Cæc. 5), if any mistake has been caused you.]

in segetem flamma incidit (Æn. ii. 304), the fire falls upon the standing corn.

NOTE. — As usage varies, the dictionary must be consulted for each verb.

229. (RULE 24.) Many verbs of taking away and the like take the Dative (especially of a person) instead of the Ablative of Separation (§ 243): as,—

mulieri anulum detraxit, he took a ring from the woman. bona mihi abstulisti, you have robbed me of my gains.

a. The distinct idea of motion, — and, in general, names of things, — require the ablative with a preposition (§ 258.a): as, —

illum ex periculo eripuit (B. G. iv. 12), he dragged him out of danger.

b. Sometimes the dative of the person and the ablative of the thing with a preposition are both used with the same verb: as,—

victoriam ēripī sibi ē manibus, that victory should be wrested from his hands (cf. § 243. b).

c. The dative is often used by the poets in constructions which would in prose require a noun with a preposition. So, especially, with verbs of contending (§ 248. b): as,—

placitone etiam pugnābis amorī (Æn. iv. 38), will you struggle even against a love that pleases you?

tibi certat (Ecl. v. 8), vies with you. [tēcum.]

sölstitium pecori defendite (Ecl. vii. 47), keep the summer heat from the flock. [ā pecore.]

lateri abdidit ënsem (Æn. ii. 553), buried the sword in his side. [in latere, § 260. a.]

[For the Dative instead of ad with the Accusative, see § 225. b. 3.]

230. (RULE 25.) The passive of intransitive verbs that govern the dative can be used only *impersonally* (§ 146. d). The dative is retained (cf. § 225. e).

cui parcī potuit (Liv. xxi. 14), who could be spared?

non modo non invidētur illī aetātī vērum etiam favētur (Off. ii. 45), that

age (youth) is not only not envied, but is even favored.

## 5. Dative of Possession.

231. (Rule 26.) The Dative is used with esse and similar words to denote Possession: as,—

hominī cum deō similitūdō est, man has a likeness to God (there is, etc.). est mihi domī pater (Ecl. iii. 33), I have a father at home.

REMARK. — The Genitive or a Possessive with esse emphasizes the possessor; the Dative, the fact of possession: as, liber est meus, the book is mine (and no one's else); est mini liber, I have a book (among other things). The latter is the usual form to denote simple possession, since habeō, have, generally signifies hold, often with some secondary meaning: as,—

legionem quam secum habebat (B. G. i. 8), the legion which he kept with him.

domitas habere libidines, to keep the passions under control.

a. Compounds of esse take the dative (except abesse and posse):
 as, —

deest mihi pecūnia, *I lack money*.
quid mihi prōderit? in what will it help me (what will it profit me)?

- b. After nomen est, and similar expressions, the name is usually in the dative by a kind of apposition with the person: as,
  - cui Āfricānō fuit cōgnōmen (Liv. xxv. 2), whose (to whom) surname was Africanus.
- c. The name may also be in apposition with **nomen**; or in later Latin in the genitive (cf. § 214. f): as,—

cui nomen Arethusa (Verr. iv. 118), [a fount] called Arethusa (to which is the name Arethusa).

puerō nōmen est Mārcus (Mārcī), the boy's name is Marcus (to the boy, etc.).

# 6. Dative of the Agent.

232. (RULE 27.) The Dative of the Agent is used with the gerundive, to denote the person on whom the necessity rests: as,—

haec vobis provincia est defendenda (Man. 14), this province is for you to defend (to be defended by you).

mihi est pügnandum, I have to fight (i.e. the need of fighting is to me; compare mihi est liber, I have a book, § 231. Rem.).

Note. — This is the regular way of expressing the agent with the Second or Passive Periphrastic Conjugation (§ 113. d. 1). But when a dative is expressed governed by the verb itself, and rarely at other times, the agent is denoted by the Ablative with ab (§ 246) to avoid ambiguity: as, —

quibus est a vobis consulendum (Manil. 6), for whom you must consult (for whom it must be consulted by you).

(Cf. istī prīncipēs et sibi et cēterīs populī Rōmānī ūniversī auctōritātī pārendum esse fateantur (id. 64), let these leading men admit that both by them and by everybody else the authority of the Roman people as a whole must be obeyed. [Here there could be no ambiguity.])

a. The dative of the agent is common after perfect participles (especially when used in an adjective sense), but rare after other parts of the verb: as,—

mihi dēlīberātum et constitutum est (Rull. i. 25), I have deliberated and resolved (it has been deliberated by me).

mihi rēs tōta prōvīsa est (Verr. iv. 91), the matter has been fully provided for by me.

b. The dative of the agent is used by the poets and later writers with almost any passive verb: as, —

neque cernitur üllî (Æn. i. 440), nor is seen by any.

fēlīx est dicta sororī (Ov. Fast. iii. 597), she was called happy by her sister.

c. The dative of the person who sees or thinks is regularly used with videor, seem: as, —

vidētur mihi, it seems (or seems good) to me.

dis aliter visum [est] (Æn. ii. 428), it seemed otherwise to the gods.

Note. — The verb probare, approve (originally a mercantile word), takes a Dative of Reference (§ 235), which has become so firmly attached that it is retained with the passive, seemingly as Dative of Agent: as,—

haec sententia et illī et nobīs probabātur (Fam. i. 7, 5), this view met both his approval and mine (was made acceptable to, etc.).

mihi ēgregiē probāta est ōrātiō tua (Tusc. iv. 8), your discourse was very satisfactory to me.

## 7. Dative of the Purpose or End.

233. (Rule 28.) The Dative is used to denote the Purpose or End.

This use of the dative, once apparently general, remains in only a few constructions. Thus, —

a. The dative of an abstract noun is used to show that for which a thing serves or which it accomplishes (Dative of Service), often with another dative of the person or thing affected: as,—

māgnō ūsuī nostrīs fuit (B. G. iv. 25), it was of great service to our men (for great use).

tertiam aciem nostrīs subsidiō mīsit (id. i. 52), he sent the third line as a relief to our men.

omnia deerant quae ad reficiendas naves erant usui (id. iv. 29), all things were wanting which were of use for repairing the ships.

Note. — The word frügi used as an adjective is a dative of this kind: as, — cogis me dicere inimicum frügi, you compel me to call my enemy honest. (Cf. ero frügi bonae (Plaut. Pseud. 468), I will be good for something.)

b. The Dative of concrete nouns is used to express purpose in prose in a few military expressions, and freely in poetry: as,—

receptui canere, to sound a retreat.

locum castris capere, to select a site for a camp.

optāvit locum rēgno (Æn. iii. 109), he chose a place for a kingdom.

NOTE. — The construction of purpose or end is also found in the dative of the Gerundive (§ 299. b) and after Adjectives (§ 234).

# 8. Dative with Adjectives.

- 234. (RULE 29.) The dative is used with adjectives, to denote that to which the given quality is directed, for which it exists, or towards which it tends.
- a. The dative is used with adjectives (and a few adverbs) of fitness, nearness, likeness, service, inclination, and their opposites: as,—

nihil est tam nātūrae aptum (Læl. 17), nothing is so fitted to nature.

nihil difficile amantī putö (Or. 33), I think nothing hard to a lover.

rebus ipsis par et aequalis oratio (id. 123), a speech equal and level with the subject.

castrīs idōneum locum dēligit (B. G. i. 49), a suitable place for a camp. congruenter nātūrae (Fin. iii. 26), in harmony with nature.

b. Adjectives of fitness or use take oftener the Accusative with ad to denote the purpose or end; but regularly the Dative of persons: as,—

aptus ad rem mīlitārem, fit for a soldier's duty.
locus ad īnsidiās aptior (Mil. 53), a place fitter for lying in wait.
nöbīs ūtile est ad hanc rem, it is of use to us for this thing.

c. Adjectives and nouns of inclination and the like may take the Accusative with in or ergā: as,—

comis in uxorem (Hor. Ep. ii. 2, 133), kind to his wife.

dīvīna bonitās ergā hominēs (N. D. ii. 60), the divine goodness towards men.

d. Some adjectives of *likeness*, nearness, belonging, and a few others, ordinarily requiring the Dative, often take the Possessive Genitive. Thus,—

fuit hoc quondam proprium populi Romani (Manil. 32), this was once the peculiar characteristic of the Roman people.

1. The Genitive is especially used with these adjectives when they are used wholly or approximately as nouns. Thus, —

amīcus Ciceroni, friendly to Cicero. But, Ciceronis amīcus, a friend of Cicero; and even Ciceronis amīcissimus, a very great friend of Cicero. hī erant affinēs istīus (Verr. iv. 14), these were this man's fellows.

2. After similis, like, the genitive is more common in early writers. Cicero uses the genitive of living objects, and either the genitive or dative of things: as,—

dominī similis es (Ter.) you're like your master (your master's like). sīmia quam similis turpissima bestia nōbīs (N. D. i. 97, quoted from Enn.), how like us is that wretched beast the ape!

sī enim hōc illī simile sit, est illud huic (N. D. i. 90), for if this is like that, that is like this.

e. The adjectives propior, proximus sometimes, and the adverbs propius, proximē more commonly, take the accusative, as if prepositions, like prope (see § 261. a).

propius periculum (Liv. xxi. 1), nearer to danger.

proximē deös accēssit Clōdius (Mil. 59), Clodius has come very near the gods.

proximus mare ōceanum (B. G. iii. 7), nearest the ocean.

## g. Dative of Reference.

235. (Rule 30.) The Dative is often required not by any particular word, but by the general meaning of the sentence (dative of reference): as,

laudavit mihi fratrem, he praised my brother (out of regard for me; laudavit fratrem meum would imply no such motive).

meritös māctāvit honōrēs, taurum Neptūnō, taurum tibi, pulcher Apollō (Æn. iii. 118), he offered the sacrifices due, a bull to Neptune, a bull to thee, beautiful Apollo.

Note. — The dative in this construction is often called the Dative of Advantage or Disadvantage (datīvus commodī aut incommodī), as denoting the person or thing for whose benefit or to whose prejudice the action is performed.

- a. The dative of reference is often used to qualify a whole idea, instead of the Possessive Genitive modifying a single word: as,
  - iter Poenīs vel corporibus suīs obstruere (Cat. Maj. 75), to block the march of the Carthaginians even with their own bodies (to block, etc., for the disadvantage of, etc.).
- b. The dative is used of the person from whose point of view a situation or direction is defined.

This construction answers to the English as you go in, and the like. The person is commonly denoted indefinitely by a participle in the plural: as,—

- oppidum prīmum Thessaliae venientibus ab Ēpīrō (B. C. iii. 80), the first town of Thessaly as you come from Epirus (to those coming, etc.).
- est urbe egressis tumulus (An. ii. 713), there is, as you come out of the city, a mound (to those having come out).
- c. The dative is (by a Greek idiom) rarely modified by nolens, volens, participles of nole, vole, or by some similar word: as,
  - ut quibusque bellum invītīs aut cupientibus erat (Tac. Ann. i. 59), as each might receive the war reluctantly or gladly.
- d. The dative is used idiomatically without any verb in colloquial questions and exclamations: as,—

quo mihi fortunam (Hor. Ep. i. 5. 12), of what use to me is fortune? unde mihi lapidem (Hor. Sat. ii. 7. 116), where can I get a stone?

vae victīs, woe to the conquered.
em tibi, there, take that (there, for you)! [Cf. § 236.]
hei mihi, ah, me!

#### 10. Ethical Dative.

236. The Dative of the Personal Pronouns is used to show a certain interest felt by the person indicated: 1 as,—

<sup>1</sup> Compare "I'll rhyme you so eight years together." - As You Like It.

quid mihi Celsus agit (Hor.), what is my friend Celsus doing? suō sibi servit patrī (Plaut. Capt. Prol.), he serves his own father.

This construction is called the Ethical Dative (dativus ēthicus). It is really only a special case of the dative of reference.

REMARK.—To express for, meaning instead of, in defence of, in behalf of, the ablative with pro must be used: as,—
pro patria mori (Hor. Od. iii. 2), to die for one's country.

## III. ACCUSATIVE.

The uses of the accusative may be classified as follows:

- I. PRIMARY OBJECT: { I. Directly affected by the Action (§ 237). 2. Effect of the Action { Thing produced (§ 237). Cognate Accusative (§ 238).
- Two Accusatives: {
   1. Predicate Accusative (of Naming, etc.) (§ 239. a).
   Of Asking or Teaching (§ 239. c).
   Of Concealing (§ 239. d).
  - 3. Of Concealing (§ 239. d).
  - 2. Of Specification (Greek Accusative) (§ 240. c).
- 3. IDIOMATIC USES:
  4. Of Exclamation (§ 240. d).
  5. Subject of Infinitive (§ 240. f).

## r. Direct Object.

237. (RULE 31.) The Direct Object of a transitive verb is put in the Accusative (§ 177).

The accusative of the Direct Object denotes (a) that which is directly affected, or (b) that which is caused or produced by the action of the verb: as,—

- (a) Brūtus Caesarem interfēcit, Brutus killed Cæsar.
- (b) aedem facere, to make a temple. [Compare proelium pūgnāre, to fight a battle, § 238.]

Note. — There is no definite line by which transitive verbs can be distinguished from intransitive. Verbs which usually take a direct object (expressed or implied) are called transitive, but many of these are often used intransitively or absolutely. Thus timeo, I fear, is transitive in the sentence inimicum timeo, I fear my enemy, but intransitive (absolute) in noli timere, don't be afraid.

 $\alpha$ . The object of a transitive verb in the active voice becomes its subject in the passive, and is put in the nominative (§ 177.  $\alpha$ ): as,—

Brūtus Caesarem interfēcit, Brutus killed Cæsar.

Caesar ā Brūtō interfectus est, Casar was killed by Brutus.

domum aedificat, he builds a house.

domus aedificatur, the house is building (being built).

b. Many verbs apparently intransitive, expressing *feeling*, take an accusative, and may be used in the passive: as, —

meum cāsum lūctumque doluērunt (Sest. 145), they grieved [at] my calamity and sorrow.

sī non Acrisium rīsissent Iūppiter et Venus (Hor. O. iii. 16. 5), if Jupiter and Venus had not laughed [at] Acrisius.

c. Verbs of taste, smell, and the like take an accusative of the quality: as, —

vīnum redolēns (Cic.), smelling [of] wine.

herbam mella sapiunt (Plin.), the honey tastes [of] grass. \*

Note. - These are properly Cognate Accusatives (§ 238).

d. Verbs of motion, compounds of circum and trāns, and a few others, often become transitive, and take the accusative (cf. § 228. a): as,—

consulatum ineunt (Liv. ii. 28), they enter upon the consulship.

sī īnsulam adīsset (B. G. iv. 20), if he should go to the island.

transire flumen (id. ii. 23), to cross the river (cf. § 239. b).

cīvēs quī circumstant senātum (Cat. i. 21), the citizens who stand about the senate.

e. The accusative is used with the impersonals decet, delectat, invat, oportet, fallit, fugit, praeterit: as, —

te non praeterit (Fam. i. 8), it does not escape your notice.

mē pedibus dēlectat claudere verba (Hor. Sat. ii. 1. 28), my delight is (it pleases me) to arrange words in measure.

nisi më fallit, unless I am mistaken (unless it deceives me).

So after latet in poetry and post-classical prose: as, -

latet plērosque (Plin. ii. 82), it is unknown to most persons.

Note 3. — Many verbs usually intransitive are sometimes used transitively from a similarity of meaning with other verbs that regularly take the accusative: as,—

multa gemēns īgnōminiam (Georg. iii. 226), groaning much at the disgrace. [Cf. doleō, § 237. b.]

festinare fugam (Æn. iv. 575), to hasten their flight. [Cf. accelero.]

f. In early and popular usage some nouns and adjectives derived from transitive verbs retain verbal force sufficient to govern the accusative: as,—

quid tibi hanc tāctiō est (Plaut. Poen. 1308), what business have you to touch her? [Cf. tangō.]

mīrābundī bestiam (App. Met. iv. 16), full of wonder at the creature.

[Cf. mīror.]

g. In early usage the impersonal gerundive with esse governs the accusative ( $\S$  294. c): as, —

quam nöbīs ingrediendum sit (Cat. Maj. 6), which (road) we must enter upon. [Here Cicero purposely uses an archaic construction.]

h. Many verbs ordinarily transitive may be used absolutely (§ 237. note), having their natural object in the ablative with de: as,—

priusquam Pomponius de eius adventū cognosceret (B. C. iii. 101), before Pomponius could learn of his coming. [Cf. eius adventū cognito, his arrival being discovered.]

i. For Accusative and Genitive after Impersonals, see § 221. b.

## 2. Cognate Accusative.

238. (RULE 32.) A neuter verb often takes the accusative of a noun of kindred meaning, usually modified by an adjective or in some other manner.

This construction is called the Cognate Accusative or Accusative of Kindred Signification. Thus,—

tertiam iam aetātem hominum vīvēbat (Cat. Maj. 31), he was now living the third generation of men.

coîre societâtem, to [go together and] form an alliance.

a. The Cognate Accusative is often loosely used by the poets: as,—saltāre Cyclopa (Hor. Sat. i. 5. 63), to dance the Cyclops (represent in dancing).

Amaryllida resonāre (Ecl. i. 5), to reëcho [the name of] Amaryllis. intonuit laevum (Æn. ii. 693), it thundered on the left.

b. A neuter pronoun or colorless noun or adjective is very common as cognate accusative (cf. §§ 148. d and 240. a). Thus,—

Empedocles multa alia peccat (N. D. i. 29), Empedocles commits many other slips.

quid më ista laedunt (Agr. ii. 32), what harm do those things do me? hoc të moneo, I give you this warning (cf. note, below). id laetor, I rejoice at this (cf. note, below).

So in many common phrases: as, -

sī quid ille sē velit (B. G. i. 34), if he should want anything of him (if he should want him in anything).

numquid mē vīs, can I do anything more for you? (there is nothing you want of me, is there?) [A common form of leave-taking.] id valet, it amounts to this.

Note. — In these cases substantives with a definite meaning would be in some other construction: as, —

bonīs rēbus laetārī, to rejoice at prosperity. [Also: in, dē, or ex.] dē testāmentō monēre, to remind one of the will. [Later: genitive, §219.c.]

c. A few verbs in isolated expressions take the accusative from a forcing of their meaning. Such expressions are—

ferīre foedus, to strike a treaty (i.e. to sanction by striking down a victim). vincere iūdicium (spōnsiōnem, rem, hōc), to prevail on a trial, etc. [As if the case were a difficulty to overcome; cf. vincere iter, Æn. vi. 688.] terram nāvigāre (Fin. ii. 112), to sail over the land. [Perhaps quoted from a poet.]

aequor nāvigāre, to sail the sea. [As if it were trānsīre, § 237. d.] maria aspera iūrō (Æn. vi. 351), I swear by the rough seas. [The accusative with verbs of swearing is chiefly poetic.]

#### 3. Two Accusatives.

**239.** Some transitive verbs take a second accusative in addition to their Direct Object.

This second accusative is either (1) a Predicate Accusative or (2) a Secondary Object.

#### a. Predicate Accusative.

1. An accusative in the Predicate referring to the same person or thing as the Direct Object, but not in apposition with it, is called a Predicate Accusative (cf. § 185. head-note).

a. (Rule 33.) Verbs of naming, choosing, appointing, making, esteeming, showing, and the like, may take a Predicate Accusative: as. —

Ciceronem consulem creare, to elect Cicero consul.

mē augurem nomināvērunt (Phil. ii. 4), they nominated me for augur.

hominem prae se neminem putavit (Cic.), he thought nobody a man in comparison with himself.

NOTE 1. — The predicate accusative may be an adjective: as, —

homines ex feris et immanibus mites reddidit et mansuetos (Inv. i. 2), has made men from wild and barbarous [creatures] gentle and mild.

NOTE 2. — In changing from the active voice to the passive, the predicate accusative becomes predicate nominative (§ 185): as, —

rex ab suis appellatur (B. G. vii. 4), he is called king by his [subjects].

## b. Secondary Object.

- 2. (RULE 34.) The Accusative of the Secondary Object is used (along with the direct object) to denote something more remotely affected by the action of the verb.
- b. Transitive verbs compounded with prepositions sometimes take a Secondary Object, originally governed by the preposition: as,—

Caesar Germanos flümen träicit (B. C. i. 83), Caesar throws the Germans across the river.

Note 1. — But with these verbs the preposition is more commonly repeated, or sometimes the ablative is used : as, —

donec res suas trans Halyn flumen traicerent (Liv. xxxviii. 25), till they should get their possessions across the river Halys.

(exercitus) Padō trāiectus Cremōnam (Liv. xxi. 56), the army was conveyed across the Po to Cremona (by way of the Po, § 258. g).

Note 2. — The secondary object may be retained with a passive verb:

Belgae Rhēnum trāductī sunt (B. G. ii. 4), the Belgians were led over the Rhine.

NOTE 3.—Sometimes the Secondary Object appears to become the subject of a passive verb; but this comes from a change of meaning, and the object is really Direct. See the Remark.

Remark. — The double construction indicated in b is possible only when the force of the preposition and the force of the verb are each distinctly felt in the compound, the verb governing the Direct, and the preposition the Secondary object.

But often the two parts of the compound become closely united to form a transitive verb of simple meaning. So trāiciō comes to mean either (1) to pierce (anybody) [by hurling] or (2) to cross (a river, etc.): as,—

- (1) gladiō hominem trāiēcit, he pierced the man with a sword. [Here iaciō has lost all transitive force, and serves simply to give the force of a verb to the meaning of trāns, and to tell the manner of the act.]
- (2) Rhodanum trāiēcit, he crossed the Rhone. [Here iaciö has become simply a verb of motion, and trāiciö is hardly distinguishable from trānseō.]

In these examples hominem and Rhodanum, which would be secondary objects if traiecit were used in its primary signification, have become the direct objects. Hence in the passive construction they become the subjects and are put in the nominative. Thus,—

homō trāiectus est gladiō, the man was pierced with a sword.

Rhodanus trāiectus est, the Rhone was crossed.

The poetical traiectus lora (Æn. ii. 273), pierced with thongs, comes from a mixture of two constructions:—

- (1) eum trāiēcit lora, he rove thongs through him, 1 and
- (2) eum trāiēcit lorīs, he pierced him with thongs.

In putting the sentence into a passive form, the direct object of the former (lora) is irregularly kept, and the direct object of the latter (eum) is made the subject.

c. (RULE 35.) Verbs of asking and teaching may take two accusatives, one of the Person (direct object), and the other of the Thing (secondary object): as,—

mē sententiam rogāvit, he asked me my opinion. docēre puerōs elementa, to teach children their A B C's.

Note 1.—Some verbs of asking take the ablative of the person with a preposition instead of the accusative. So, always, petō (ab), quaerō (ex, ab, dē) often postulō (ab), and occasionally others: as,—

pācem ab Romānīs petiērunt (B. G. ii. 13), they sought peace from the Romans.

Note. 2. — With the passive of verbs of asking or teaching, the person or the thing may be used as subject: as, —

Caesar sententiam rogatus est, Casar was asked his opinion.

REMARK. — The accusative of the *thing* may be retained with the passive of rogo, and of verbs of teaching, and occasionally with a few other verbs: as,—

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Perhaps not found in the active, but cf. trāiectō fūne (Æn. v. 488).

fuerant hoc rogātī (Cæl. 64), they had been asked this.

Cicero per legatos cuncta edoctus (Sall. Cat. 45), Cicero being informed of everything through the ambassadors.

But with most verbs of asking in prose the accusative of the thing becomes the subject-nominative, and the person is expressed by the ablative with a preposition: as,—

nē postulantur quidem vīrēs ā senectūte (Cat. M. 34), strength is not even expected of an old man (asked from old age).

d. The verb celo, conceal, may take two accusatives, and the usually intransitive lateo, lie hid, an accusative of the person (cf. § 237. e): as,—

non të celavi sermonem T. Ampi (Fam. ii. 16), I did not conceal from you the talk of T. Ampius.

nec latuere doli fratrem Iunonis (Æn. i. 130), nor did the wiles of Juno escape the notice of her brother.

### 4. Idiomatic Uses.

# 240. The Accusative has the following special uses:—

a. A neuter pronoun or adjective is used as cognate accusative with an adverbial force (Adverbial Accusative, cf. § 238. b): as,—

quid moror, why do I delay?

dulce loquentem (Hor. Od. i. 22. 24), sweetly speaking.

acerba tuens (Æn. ix. 794), looking cruelly.

torvum clāmat (id. vii. 399), he cries harshly.

Note. — This use does not differ from the cognate accusative except that in some cases the connection of the accusative with the verb has faded out so that the words are real adverbs. But no fixed line can be drawn between these two constructions.

b. The accusative is found in a few adverbial phrases: as,—

id temporis, at that time.

id (istuc) aetātis, at that age.

id (quod) genus, of that (what) sort (perhaps originally nominative).

meam vicem, on my part.

maximam partem, for the most part.

virile secus, of the male sex (probably originally in apposition).

cetera, in other respects.

quod sī, but (as to which) if.

quid est quod, why is it that?

c. The so-called *synecdochical* or Greek accusative is used by the poets to denote the part affected: as,—

caput nectentur (Æn. v. 309), their head shall be bound (they shall be bound about the head).

ārdentīs oculos suffectī sanguine et īgnī (id. ii. 210), their glaring eyes bloodshot and blazing with fire (suffused as to their eyes, etc.). nūda genū (id. i. 320), bare to the knee.

NOTE. — In many apparently similar expressions the accusative may be regarded as the direct object of a verb in the middle voice (§ 111. a): as,—

inūtile ferrum cingitur (Æn. ii. 510), he girds on the useless steel.

nodō sinūs collēcta fluentīs (id. i. 320), having her flowing folds gathered
in a knot.

umeros insternor pelle leonis (id. ii. 722), I cover my shoulders with a lion's skin.

d. The accusative is used in exclamations: as, —

O fortunātam rempublicam, oh, fortunate republic! [Cf. O fortunāta mors (Phil. xiv. 31), oh, happy death! (§ 241. c).] mē miserum, ah, wretched me!

ēn quātuor ārās (Ecl. v. 65), lo, four altars! prō deūm fidem, good heavens (oh, protection of the gods)! huncine hominem (Verr. v. 62), this man, good heavens!

O mē infēlicem (Mil. 102), oh, unhappy me!

Note. — The omission of the verb has given rise to some other idiomatic accusatives. Such are —

salūtem (sc. dīcit) (in letters), greeting. quō mihi fortūnam, of what use is fortune? [Here no verb is thought of.]

- e. (RULE 37.) Duration of time and extent of space are expressed by the accusative (see §§ 256, 257).
- f. (RULE 36.) The subject of the infinitive mood is in the accusative. This is especially frequent after words of knowing, thinking, telling, and perceiving (verba sentiendi et dēclārandi, see § 272).
- g. The accusative in later writers is sometimes used in apposition with a clause.
- h. For the accusative of the End of Motion, see § 258; for that after postridio, propior, etc., see § 261.  $\alpha$ .

[For the Accusative with Prepositions, see § 152. a, c.]

#### IV. VOCATIVE.

- 241. The Vocative is the case of direct address: as,—
- Tiberine pater, te sancte precor (Liv. ii. 10), O, father Tiber, thee, holy one, I pray.
- a. A noun in the nominative in apposition with the subject of the imperative mood is sometimes used instead of the vocative: as,—

audī tū, populus Albānus (Liv. i. 24), hear, thou people of Alba.

b. The vocative of an adjective is sometimes used instead of the nominative, where the verb is in the second person: as,—

censorem trabeate salūtās (Pers. iii. 29), robed you salute the censor.

- c. The nominative may be used in exclamations (cf. § 240. d): as, ēn dextra fidēsque (Æn. iv. 597), lo, the faith and plighted word!
- d. The word macte is used as a predicate in the phrase macte esto (virtute), success attend your (valor). Thus,—

iubērem tē mācte virtūte esse (Liv. ii. 12), I should bid you go on and prosper in your valor.

Note. — As the quantity of the final e in macte is not determinable, it may be that the word was an adverb, as in bene est, and the like. (See American Journal of Philology, Vol. I.)

#### V. ABLATIVE.

242. The Ablative is used to denote the relations expressed in English by the prepositions from, in, at, with, by: as,—

līberāre metū, to deliver from fear. caecus avāritiā, blind with avarice. occīsus gladiō, slain by the sword.

The following are the uses of the Latin Ablative, classed according to the original cases which have been combined in it:—

I. Of Separation, Privation, and Want (§ 243).
2. Of Source (participles of origin, etc.) (§ 244).
3. Of Cause (gaudeō, dīgnus, etc.) (§ 24).
4. Of Agent (with ab after Passives) (§ 246).
5. Of Comparison (THAN) (§ 247).

2. INSTRUMENTAL

ABLATIVE (with):

1. Of Manner, Means, and Instrument (§ 248).
2. Of Accompaniment (with cum) (§ 248. a).

3. Of Object with the Deponents utor, etc. (§ 249).

4. Of Degree of Difference (§ 250).

5. Of Quality (with Adjectives) (§ 251).

6. Of Price and Exchange (§ 252).

7. Of Specification (§ 253).

1. Of Place where (commonly with in) (§ 254).

3. LOCATIVE ABLA-TIVE (in, on, at): 3. Of Time and Circumstance (§ 254. a).

4. Ablative Absolute (§ 255).

## 1. Ablative of Separation.

- 243. (Rule 38.) Words signifying Separation or Privation are followed by the ablative, with or without a preposition.
- a. Verbs meaning to remove, set free, be absent, deprive, and want, require the ablative: as, —

oculis se prīvāvit (Fin. v. 87), he deprived himself of eyes.

lēgibus solūtus, relieved from the obligation of laws.

omnī Galliā interdīcit Romānos (B. G. i. 46), he (Ariovistus) bars the Romans from the whole of Gaul.

voluptātibus carēre (Cat. Maj. 7), to lack enjoyments.

non egeo medicina (Læl. 10), I want no physic.

māgnō mē metū līberābis (Cat. i. 10), you will relieve me of great fear.

b. Verbs compounded with **ā**, ab, d**ē**, ex, take the simple ablative when used figuratively; but when used literally to denote separation or motion, they usually require a preposition (see § 258). Thus,—

conatu desistere (B. G. i. 8), to desist from the attempt.

abīre magistrātū, to leave one's office.

abstinēre iniūriā, to refrain from wrong.

But, - aberrare a proposito (Cic.), to wander from the point.

de provincia decedere (Verr. ii. 49), to withdraw from one's province.

ex cīvitāte excēssēre (B. G. vi. 8), they departed from the state. [But cf. fīnibus suīs excēsserant (id. iv. 18), they had left their own territory.]

ā māgnō dēmīssum nōmen Iūlō (Æn. i. 288), a name descended (sent down) from great Iulus.

NOTE. - For the Dative used instead of the Ablative of Separation, see § 229.

- c. For the ablative of the actual place whence in idiomatic expressions, see § 258. a, and note 2.
  - d. Adjectives denoting freedom and want take the ablative: as,—urbs nūda praesidiō (Att. vii. 13), the city naked of defence.
    immūnis mīlitiā (Liv. i. 43), free of military service.
    plēbs orba tribūnīs (Leg. iii. 9), the people deprived of tribunes.

Note. — Some adjectives of want take the genitive (see § 218. a).

e. (RULE 39.) Opus and usus, signifying need, are followed by the ablative: as. —

magistrātibus opus est (Leg. iii. 5), there is need of magistrates. nunc vīribus ūsus (Æn. viii. 441), now there is need of strength.

Note. — With these words the ablative of the perfect participle, with or without a noun, is often found (§ 292. b): as, —

opus est tuā expromptā memoriā atque astūtiā (Ter. And. 723), I must have your good memory and cleverness set to work.

properāto opus erat (Mil. 49), there was need of haste.

facto usus est, it is desirable to do (there is need of it's being done).

REMARK. — Frequently opus is in the predicate, with the thing needed in the nominative as subject: as, —

dux nobis et auctor opus est (Fam. ii. 6, 4), we need a chief and responsible adviser (a chief, etc., is necessary for us).

sī quid ipsī opus esset (B. G. i. 34), if he himself wanted anything (if anything should be necessary for him).

f. Egeo and indigeo often take the genitive (§ 223): as, -

nē quis auxilī egeat (B. G. vi. 11), lest any require aid.

quae ad consolandum maioris ingeni et ad ferendum singularis virtütis indigent (Fam. vi. 4, 2), [sorrows] which for their comforting need more ability, and for endurance unusual courage.

#### 2. Ablative of Source and Material.

**244.** (Rule 40.) The ablative (with or without a preposition) is used to denote the Source from which anything is derived, or the Material of which it consists.

These ablatives commonly take a preposition: as, -

I. Source: -

Rhēnus oritur ex Lēpontiis (B. G. iv. 10), the Rhine rises in (from) the country of the Lepontii.

### 2. Material: -

valvās māgnificentiōrēs, ex aurō atque ebore perfectiōrēs (Verr. iv. 124), more splendid doors, more finely wrought of gold and ivory.

templum de marmore ponam (Georg. iii. 13), I'll build a temple of marble.

NOTE 1. - In poetry the preposition is often omitted.

NOTE 2. — The Ablative of Material is a development of the Ablative of Source (cf. § 214).

a. Participles denoting birth or origin are followed by the Ablative of Source, generally without a preposition: 1 as,—

Iove nātus et Māiā (N. D. iii. 56), son of Jupiter and Maia. quō sanguine crētus (Æn. ii. 74), born of zwhat blood.

REMARK. — A preposition (ab, dē, ex) is usually expressed with the name of the *mother*, and often with that of other ancestors: as, —

Trös est generātus ab illō (Ov. Fast. iv. 33), Tros was sprung from him. Bēlus et omnēs ā Bēlō (Æn. i. 730), Belus and all his descendants.

b. Rarely the place of birth is expressed by the ablative; as, -

dēsīderāvit C. Felgīnātem Placentiā, A. Grānium Puteolīs (B. C. iii. 71), he lost C. Felginas of Placentia, A. Granius of Puteoli.

NOTE. — The Roman tribe is regularly expressed by the ablative : as, —

- Q. Verrem Romilia (Verr. i. 23), Quintus Verres of the Romilian tribe.
- c. Some verbs may take the Ablative of Material without a preposition. Such are constare, consistere, and continers. But with constare, ex is more common. Thus,—

domüs amoenitäs non aedificio sed silva constabat (Nep. Att. 13), the charm of the house consisted not in the buildings but in the woods.

ex animo constamus et corpore (Fin. iv. 19), we consist of soul and body. vita corpore et spiritu continetur (Marc. 28), life consists of body and spirit.

d. The Ablative of Material without a preposition is used with facere, fieri, and like words, in the sense of do with, become of: as,—quid hōc homine faciātis (Verr. II. i, 42), what are you going to do with this man?

quid Tulliolă meā fiet (Fam. xiv. 4), what will become of my dear Tullia? quid te futurum est (Verr. ii. 155), what will become of you?

e. The Ablative of Material with ex, and in poetry without a preposition, sometimes depends directly on a noun: as,—

non pauca pocula ex auro (Verr. iv. 62), not a few cups of gold.

scopulis pendentibus antrum (Æn. i. 166), a cave of hanging rocks.

¹ Such are nātus, satus, ēditus, genitus, ortus, prognātus, generātus, crētus, creātus, oriundus.

### 3. Ablative of Cause.

245. (RULE 41.) The ablative (with or without a preposition) is used to express *Cause*.

nimiö gaudiö paene desipiebam (Fam. ii. 9), I was almost wild from too great joy.

neglegentia plectimur (Læl. 85), we are chastised for negligence.

certis de causis, for certain reasons.

mare ā sole lucet (Acad. ii. 105), the sea gleams in the sun (from the sun).

- a. (Rule 42.) Certain verbs and adjectives regularly take the ablative of cause without a preposition. These are—
  - I. The adjectives dignus, indignus: as, -

vir patre avo māioribus suīs dīgnissimus (Phil. iii. 25), a man most worthy of his father, grandfather, and ancestors.

- të omni honore indignissimum iūdicat (Vatin. 39), he judges you entirely unworthy of every honor.
- 2. The verbs dignor, laboro (also with ex), exsilio, exsulto, triumpho, lacrimo, ardeo: as, —

haud equidem tăli mē dignor honore (Æn. i. 335), I do not deem myself worthy of such an honor.

doleō tē aliīs malīs labōrāre (Fam. iv. 3), I am sorry that you suffer with other ills.

ex aere aliëno laborare (B. C. iii. 22), to labor under debt (lit., from another's money).

exsiluī gaudiō (Fam. xvi. 16), I jumped for joy. dēlictō dolēre (Læl. 90), to grieve for the fault.

NOTE 1. — For gaudeo and glorior, see § 254. b.

NOTE 2. — Dignus and indignus sometimes take the genitive in colloquial usage and in poetry: as,—

dīgnus salūtis (Plaut. Trin. 1153), worthy of safety.

māgnōrum haud umquam indīgnus avōrum (Æn. xii. 649), never unworthy my great ancestors.

NOTE 3. — For the construction of dignus and indignus with verbs, see § 320. f.

b. The motive which influences the mind of the person acting is expressed by the ablative of cause; the object exciting the emotion often by ob or propter with the accusative: as,—

non ob praedam aut spoliandi cupidine (Tac. H. i. 63), not for booty or through lust of plunder.

amīcitia ex sē et propter sē expetenda (Fin. ii. 83), friendship must be sought of and for itself.

Note. — But these constructions are often confused: as,—

pārēre lēgibus propter metum (Parad. 34), to obey the laws on account of fear. [Here metum is almost equal to "the terrors of the law," and propter is used where the ablative would be more natural.]

c. The ablatives causa and gratia, for the sake of, are used with a genitive preceding, or with a pronoun in agreement: as,—

eā causā, on account of this; quā grātiā (Ter. Eun. 99), for what purpose? meā causā, for my sake; meā grātiā (Plaut.), for my sake. praedictionis causā (N. D. iii, 5), by way of prophecy.

exemplī grātiā (verbī grātiā), for example.

NOTE. — But grātiā with possessives in this use is rare.

## 4. Ablative of Agent.

246. (RULE 43.) The Voluntary Agent after a passive verb is expressed by the ablative with  $\bar{a}$  or ab: as,—

laudātur ab hīs, culpātur ab illīs (Hor. Sat. i. 2. 11), he is praised by these, blamed by those.

nē virtūs ab audāciā vincerētur (Sest. 92), that valor might not be overborne by audacity.

REMARK. — The ablative of the agent (which requires ā or ab) must be carefully distinguished from the ablative of *instrument*, which has no preposition (§ 248. c. 1). Thus, —

occīsus gladio, slain by a sword; but, occīsus ab hoste, slain by an enemy.

a. The ablative of the agent with ab is sometimes used after neuter verbs that have a passive sense: as,—

perire ab hoste, to be slain by an enemy.

b. The agent, if conceived as instrument or means, is expressed by per with the accusative, or by operā with a genitive or possessive: as,—

Caesar certior factus est ā lēgātīs, Cæsar was informed by the ambassadors (in person). But—

Caesar certior factus est per legatos, Caesar was informed by ambassadors (i.e. by means of ambassadors).

non meā operā ēvēnit (Ter. Hec. 228), it has n't happened through me (by my exertions).

NOTE I.—An animal is usually regarded not as the agent, but as the means or instrument. Hence the simple ablative is used. But ab sometimes occurs. Thus,—

equō vehī, to ride on horseback (be conveyed by means of a horse). [Not ab equō.] But —

Lūcānō cum sīc lacerēris ab ursō (Mart. Ep. 8), since you are thus mangled by a Lucanian bear.

NOTE 2. — For the Dative of the Agent with the Gerundive, see § 232.

### 5. Ablative of Comparison.

247. (Rule 44.) The Comparative degree is followed by the ablative (signifying THAN): as,

Cato est Cicerone eloquentior, Cato is more eloquent than Cicero.

quid nobis duobus laboriosius est (Mil. 5), what more burdened with toil than we two?

vilius argentum est auro, virtūtibus aurum (Hor. Ep. i. 1. 52), silver is less precious than gold, gold than virtue.

a. (RULE 45.) The comparative may be followed by quam, than. When quam is used, the two things compared are put in the same case (cf. § 208. a).

The construction with quam is required when the first of the things compared is in any other case than the nominative or accusative. With those cases its use is optional. Thus,—

contionibus accommodatior est quam iudiciis (Clu. 2), fitter for popular assemblies than for courts.

misericordia dignior quam contumelia (Piso 32), more worthy of pity than of disgrace.

REMARK. — Relative pronouns having a definite antecedent never take quam in this construction, but always the ablative : as, —

rēx erat Aenēās nobīs, quo iūstior alter, etc. (Æn. i. 544), Æneas was our king, than whom no other was more righteous, etc.

Note. — The poets sometimes use the ablative of comparison where the prose construction requires quam: as,—

pane egeo iam mellītīs potiore placentīs (Hor. Ep. i. 10. 11), I want bread better than honey-cakes.

b. The idiomatic ablatives opinione, spē, solito, dicto, aequo, crēdibili, and iūsto are used after comparatives instead of a clause: as.—

gravius aequō (Sall.), more seriously than was right.
celerius opinione (Fam. xiv. 23), faster than one would think.
amnis solitō citātior (Liv. xxiii. 19), a stream swifter than its wont.
sērius spē omnium (id. ii. 3), later than all hoped (than the hope of all).

c. After the comparatives plūs, minus, amplius, longius without quam, a word of measure or number is often used with no change in its case: as,—

plūs septingentī captī (Liv. xli. 12), more than 700 were taken.
plūs tertiā parte interfectā (Cæs.), more than a third part being slain.
spatium non amplius sexcentorum pedum (id.), a space of not more than
600 feet.

d. Alius is sometimes used with the ablative in poetic and colloquial use; in formal prose it takes āc (atque), nisi, quam. Thus,—

alius Lysippo (Hor.), another than Lysippus.

alio ingenio ac tu (Plaut.), of a different disposition from you.

erat història nihil aliud nisi annālium confectio (De Or. ii. 52), history was nothing else but a compiling of records.

e. The comparative of an adverb is usually followed by quam, rarely by the ablative except in poetry. Thus,—

tempus të citius quam örātiö dēficeret (Rosc. Am. 89), time would fail you sooner than words. But —

cūr Sybaris olīvum sanguine vīperīnō cautius vītat (Hor. Od. i. 8. 9), why does Sybaris shun oil more carefully than viper's blood?

#### 6. Ablative of Manner.

248. (Rule 46.) The manner of an action is denoted by the ablative; usually with cum, unless a limiting adjective is used with the noun. Thus,—

cum celeritate venit, he came with speed. But -

summā celeritāte vēnit, he came with the greatest speed.

quid refert qua me ratione cogatis (Læl. 26), what difference does it make in what way you compel me?

Note. — But cum is often used even when the ablative has a limiting adjective: as, —

quanto cum periculo id fecerit (B. G. i. 17), at what risk he did this.

REMARK. — In poetry the ablative of manner often omits cum: as, --

mons aquae sequitur cumulo (Æn. i. 105), a mountain of water follows in a mass. [Cf. murmure (id. 124); rimis (id. 123).]

## 7. Ablative of Accompaniment.

a. (Rule 47.) Accompaniment is denoted by the ablative, regularly with cum: as, —

cum coniugibus ac liberis vestris, with your wives and children.

cum funditoribus sagittāriisque flumen trānsgressī (B. G. ii. 19), having crossed the river with the archers and slingers.

NOTE. — The ablative is used without cum in military phrases, and here and there by early writers: as, —

subsequēbātur omnibus copiis (B. G. ii. 19), he followed close with all his forces.

hoc praesidio profectus est (Verr. II. i, 86), with this force he set out.

REMARK. — Mīsceō and iungō, with their compounds, and confundo may take either (1) the Ablative of Accompaniment with or without cum, or (2) sometimes the Dative: as, —

mīxta dolore voluptās (B. Al. 56), pleasure mingled with pain.

fletumque cruori miscuit (Ov. Met. iv. 140), and mingled tears with blood. Caesar eas cohortes cum suo exercitu coniunxit (B. C. i. 18), Cæsar united those cohorts with his own army.

b. Words of Contention and the like require cum: as, -

armis cum hoste certare, to fight with the enemy in arms.

libenter haec cum Q. Catulo disputarem (Manil. 66), I should gladly discuss these matters with Quintus Catulus.

Note. — But words of contention may take the Dative in poetry (see § 229. c).

#### 8. Ablative of Means.

c. 1. (RULE 48.) The ablative is used to denote the means or instrument of an action: as,—

certantīs pūgnīs, calcibus, unguibus, morsū dēnique (Tusc. v. 77), fighting with fists, heels, nails, and even teeth.

cum pūgnīs et calcibus concīsus esset (Verr. iii. 56), when he had been pummelled with their fists and heels.

2. The Ablative of Means is used with verbs and adjectives of filling, abounding, and the like: as, —

aggere et crātibus fössās explent (B. G. vii. 86), they fill up the ditches with earth and fascines.

totum montem hominibus complevit (id. i. 24), he filled the whole mountain with men.

opimus praedā (Verr. II. i, 132), rich with spoils.

REMARK. — In poetry the Genitive is often used with these words by a Greek idiom. But compleo, impleo, plonus, and refertus often take the genitive in prose (cf. § 223). Thus, —

omnia plēna lūctūs et maeroris fuērunt (Sest. 128), everything was full of grief and mourning.

**249.** (Rule 49.) The deponents <del>utor</del>, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor, with several of their compounds, govern the ablative: as,—

ūtar vestrā benīgnitāte (Arch. 18), I will avail myself of your kindness. ita mihi salvā rēpūblicā vōbīscum perfruī liceat (Cat. iv. 11), so may 1 enjoy with you the state secure and prosperous.

auro heros potitur (Ov. Met. vii. 155), the hero takes the gold. fungi inānī mūnere (Æn. vi. 885), to perform an idle service.

a. Potior sometimes takes the Genitive, as always in the phrase potiri rerum, to get control or be master of affairs (§ 223. a): as,—

tôtius Galliae sese potiri posse sperant (B. G. i. 3), they hope they can get possession of the whole of Gaul.

# 9. Ablative of Degree of Difference.

250. (Rule 50.) With comparatives and words implying comparison the ablative is used to denote the Degree of Difference: as,—

quinque milibus passuum distat, it is five miles distant (by five miles). aliquot ante annis (Tusc. i. 4), several years before.

multō mē vigilāre ācrius (Cat. i. 8), that I watch much more sharply (more sharply by much).

REMARK. — This use is especially frequent with the ablatives quō...eō (hōc); quantō... tantō (cf. § 106.c): as, —

quō minus cupiditātis, eō plūs auctōritātis (Liv. xxiv. 28), the less greed, the more weight (by what the less, by that the more).

quanto erat gravior oppugnatio, tanto crebriores litterae mittebantur (B. G. v. 45), the severer the siege was, the oftener letters were sent.

Note. — To this construction are doubtless to be referred all cases of quō and eō with a comparative, even when they have ceased to be felt as degree of difference and approach the Ablative of Cause: as, —

eoque me minus paenitet (N. D. i. 8), and for that reason I regret less, etc. (by so much the less I regret).

a. The Ablative of Comparison (§ 247) and the Ablative of Degree of Difference may be used together with the same adjective: as,—multō dīvitior Crassō, much richer than Crassus.

## 10. Ablative of Quality.

251. (Rule 51.) Quality is denoted by the Ablative with a Modifier (either an adjective or limiting genitive).

This is called the Descriptive Ablative or Ablative of Quality.

animo meliore sunt gladiatores (Cat. ii. 26), the gladiators are of a better mind.

quae cum esset cīvitās aequissimō iūre āc foedere (Arch. 6), as this was a city with perfectly equal constitutional rights.

mulierem eximiā pulchritūdine (Verr. II. i, 64), a woman of extraordinary beauty.

Note. — The Ablative of Quality (like the Genitive of Quality) modifies a substantive by *describing* it. It is therefore equivalent to an adjective, and may be either attributive or predicate. In this it differs from other ablatives, which are equivalent to adverbs. Compare—

mulier pulchra, a beautiful woman.

mulier māgnā pulchritūdine, a woman of great beauty, with -

mulier pulchritūdine Trōiam dēlēvit, by her beauty a woman destroyed Troy.

mulier excellens pulchritudine (§ 253), a woman preëminent in beauty.

a. In expressions of quality the Genitive or the Ablative may often be used indifferently; but *physical* qualities are oftener denoted by the Ablative: as,—

capillo sunt promisso (B. G. v. 14), they have long hair.

#### 11. Ablative of Price.

252. (Rule 52.) Price is expressed by the ablative:

agrum vēndidit sēstertiūm sex mīlibus, he sold the land for 6000 sesterces. Antōnius rēgna addīxit pecūniā (Phil. vii. 15), Antony sold thrones for money.

a. Certain adjectives of Quantity are used in the genitive to denote *indefinite value*. Such are māgnī, parvī, tantī, quantī, plūris, minōris: as,—

est mihi tantī (Cat. ii. 15), it is worth the price (it is of much). meā māgnī interest, it is of great consequence to me. illud parvī rēfert (Manil. 18), this is of small account.

Note. — These are really genitives of quality (§ 215. c).

b. The genitive of certain colorless nouns is used in the same way. Such are nihili, nothing; āssis, a farthing; flocci (a lock of wool), a straw. Thus.—

non flocci facio (Att. xiii. 50), I care not a straw.

utinam ego istūc abs tē factum nihilī penderem (Ter. Eun. 94), oh! that I cared nothing for this being done by you!

c. With verbs of exchanging, either the thing taken or the thing given in exchange may be in the Ablative of Price. Such are: mūtāre, commūtāre, permūtāre, vertere. Thus,—

fidem suam et religionem pecunia commutare (Cluent. 129), to barter his faith and conscience for money.

vertere füneribus triumphōs (Hor. Od. i. 35. 4), to change the triumph to the funeral train (exchange triumphs for funerals).

exsilium patriā sēde mūtāvit (Q. C. iii. 7), he exchanged his native land for exile (he took exile in exchange for his native land).

Note. — With verbs of exchanging cum is often used, perhaps with a different conception of the action: as, —

aries . . . cum croceo mūtābit vellera lūtō (Ecl. iv. 44), the ram shall change his fleece for [one dyed with] the yellow saffron.

d. With verbs of buying and selling the simple ablative of price must be used, except in the case of tanti, quanti, plūris, minoris: as,—

quantī eam ēmit? vīlī ... quot minīs? quadrāgintā minīs (Pl. Epid. 51), what did he buy her for? Cheap. For how many minæ? Forty.

## 12. Ablative of Specification.

253. (Rule 53.) The Ablative of Specification denotes that in respect to which anything is or is done: as,—

virtûte praecēdunt (B. G. i. 1), they excel in courage. claudus alterō pede (Nep. Ages 8), lame of one foot.

sunt enim homines non re sed nomine (Off. i. 105), for they are men not in fact, but in name.

māior nātū, older; minor nātū, younger (cf. § 91. c).

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înfîrmus mollisque nătūrā (Læl. 75), weak and yielding by nature.

homō meā sententiā prūdentissimus (Cæcin. 22), a man, in my opinion, very wise.

equitatu pulsī erant (B. G. vii. 68), they had been beaten in the cavalry

NOTE. — To this head are to be referred many expressions where the ablative denotes that in accordance with which anything is or is done. But as the Romans had no such categories as we make, it is impossible to classify all uses of the ablative. Hence the ablative of specification is closely akin to that of manner, and to many ablatives developed from other fundamental ideas. Thus .-

meo iure, with perfect right; but, meo modo, in my fashion.

meā sententiā, in my opinion; but also more formally, ex meā sententiā. [Here the sense is the same, but the first ablative is specification: the second, source.]

qui vincit viribus (Læl. 55), who surpasses in strength. [Here it is impossible to tell whether viribus is the means of the superiority or that in respect to which one is superior.]

a. The Supine in -u, used chiefly with adjectives, is equivalent to an ablative of specification (cf. §§ 114. b, 303): as,mīrābile dictū, marvellous to tell.

## 13. Ablative of Place.

- 254. (RULE 57.) The ablative is used to denote the place where (usually with the preposition in, § 258, c).
- a. The ablative of the place where is retained in many idiomatic expressions (cf. § 259. a) which have lost the idea of place: as,—

pendēmus animīs (Tusc. i. 96), we are in suspense of mind (in our

socius periculis vobiscum adero (Jug. 85, 47), I will be present with you, a companion in dangers.

premit altum corde dolorem (Æn. i. 209), he keeps down the pain deep in

b. 1. Several verbs are regularly followed by the ablative, originally of place. These are: acquiesco, delector, laetor, gaudeo, glorior, nitor, sto, maneo, fido (confido), consisto, contineor.

nominibus veterum gloriantur (Orat. 169), they glory in the names of the ancients. [Also, de divitiis, in virtute, circa rem, aliquid, gloriari.] spē nītī (Att. iii. 9), to rely on hope.

prūdentiā fīdēns (Off. i. 8), trusting in prudence.

2. (Rule 42.) The verbals frētus, contentus, and laetus take the ablative either of place or means, as,

frētus grātiā Brūtī (Att. v. 21, 12), relying on the favor of Brutus. laetus praedā, rejoicing in the booty.

contentus sorte, content with his lot. [Possibly abl. of cause.]

REMARK. — The ablative with the above verbs sometimes takes the preposition in (and the ablative with them is probably locative): as, —

in quibus causa nītitur (Cæl. 25), on whom the case depends.

With several of these verbs the neuter accusative of pronouns is often found.

## 14. Ablative Absolute.

255. (Rule 54.) A noun or pronoun, with a participle, may be put in the ablative to define the *time* or *circumstances* of an action: as,—

nondum hieme confecta (B. G. vi. 3), the winter not yet over.

- ne vobis quidem omnibus re etiam tum probata (Cat. ii. 4), since at that time the facts were not yet proved even to all of you.
- a. An adjective, or a second noun, may take the place of the participle in the Ablative Absolute construction: as,
  - exiguā parte aestātis reliquā (B. G. iv. 20), when but a small part of the summer was left (a small part of the summer remaining).
  - M. Messālā et M. Pisōne consulibus (id. i. 2), in the consulship of Messala and Piso (Marcus Messala and Marcus Piso being consuls). [The regular way of expressing dates, see § 259. ε.]
- b. In later Latin a phrase or clause, used substantively, sometimes occurs as ablative absolute with a participle or an adjective: as,—

incertō quid peterent (Liv. xxviii. 36), as it was uncertain what they should aim at (it being uncertain, etc.).

- comperto vanam esse formidinem (Tac. Ann. i. 66), when it was found that the alarm was groundless.
- c. A participle or an adjective is sometimes used adverbially in the ablative absolute without a substantive : as, —

consulto et cogitato (Off. i. 27), on purpose and with reflection (the matter having been deliberated and thought on).

serēnō (Liv. xxxi. 12), under a clear sky (it [being] clear).

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- d. The Ablative Absolute in its developed form often takes the place of a Subordinate Clause, the noun being equivalent to a subject, and the other word to the predicate. So may be replaced
  - 1. Temporal clauses (§§ 322 ff.): as, —
  - patre interfectō, [his] father having been killed. [This corresponds to cum pater interfectus esset, when his father had been killed.]
  - recentibus sceleris ēius vestīgiīs (Q. C. vii. I, I), while the traces of the crime were fresh. [Cf. dum recentia sunt vestīgia.]
  - 2. Causal clauses (§ 321): as, —
  - at ei qui Alesiae obsidēbantur praeteritā diē quā auxilia suōrum exspectāverant, cōnsūmptō omnī frūmentō, conciliō coāctō cōnsultābant (B. G. vii. 77), but those who were under siege at Alesia since the time, etc., had expired, and their grain had been exhausted, calling a council (see 5 below), consulted together. [Cf. cum diēs praeteriisset, etc.]
  - Dārēus, dēspērātā pāce, ad reparandās vīrēs intendit animum (Q. C. iv. 6, 1), Darius, since he despaired of peace, devoted his energies to recruiting his forces. [Cf. cum pācem dēspērāret.]
  - 3. Concessive clauses (§ 313): as, -
  - at eō repūgnante fīēbat (cōnsul), immō vērō eō fīēbat magis (Milo 34), but though he (Clodius) opposed, he (Milo) was likely to be elected consul; nay, rather, etc.
  - 4. Conditional clauses (§ 304): as, -
  - occurrebat eî, mancam et debilem praeturam futuram suam, consule Milone (Milo 25), it occurred to him that his prætorship would be maimed and feeble if Milo were consul. [si Milo consul esset.]
  - quā (regione) subāctā licēbit dēcurrere in illud mare (Q. C. ix. 3, 13), if this region is subdued, we shall be free to run down into that sea.
  - quā quidem dētrāctā (Arch. 28), if this be taken away.
  - 5. Clauses of accompanying circumstance: as, -
  - ego haec ā Chrysogonō meā sponte, remōtō Sex. Rosciō, quaerō (Rosc. Am. 130), of my own accord, without reference to Sextus Roscius (S. R. being put aside), I ask these questions of Chrysogonus.
  - nec imperante nec sciente nec praesente dominō (Milo 29), without their master's giving orders, or knowing it or being present.
- Note.—As the English case absolute (the nominative) is far less common than the ablative absolute in Latin, a change of form is generally required in translation. Thus the present participle is oftenest to be ren-

dered by a relative clause with when or while; and the perfect passive participle by the perfect active participle in English. These changes may be seen in the following example:—

"At illī, intermīssā spatiā, imprūdentibus nostrīs, atque occupātīs in mūnītiōne castrōrum, subitō sē ex silvīs ēiēcērunt; impetūque in eōs factā, quī erant in statiōne prō castrīs collocātī, ācriter pūgnāvērunt; duābusque mīssīs subsidiō cohortibus ā Caesare, cum hae (perexiguō intermīssō locī spatiō inter sē) cōnstitissent, novō genere pūgnae perterritīs nostrīs, per mediōs audācissimē perrūpērunt, sēque inde incolumēs recēpērunt."—Cæsar, B. G. v. 15.

"But they, having paused a space, while our men were unaware and busied in fortifying the camp, suddenly threw themselves out of the woods, then making an attack upon those who were on guard in front of the camp, they fought fiercely, and though two cohorts had been sent by Cæsar as reinforcements, after these had taken their position (leaving very little space of ground between them) as our men were alarmed by the strange kind of fighting, they dashed most daringly through the midst of them, and got off safe."

## VI. TIME AND PLACE.

## a I. Time.

256. (RULE 55.) Time when, or within which, is expressed by the Ablative; time how long by the Accusative: as,—

## I. Ablative : -

constituta die, on the appointed day; prima luce, at daybreak. quota hora, at what o'clock? tertia vigilia, in the third watch. tribus proxumis annis (Jug. 11), within the last three years.

## 2. Accusative: -

dies continuos triginta, for thirty days together. cum triduum iter fecissot (B. G. ii. 16), when he had marched three days.

a. The Ablative of time within which sometimes takes in, and the Accusative of time how long, per for greater precision: as,—

in diebus proximīs decem (Sall.), within the next ten days. in brevī spatio (Ov. Met. i. 411), within a brief space (of time). lūdī per decem dies (Cat. iii. 20), games for ten days.

b. Duration of time is occasionally expressed by the Ablative: as, — mīlitēs quīnque hōrīs proelium sustinuerant (B. C. i. 47), the men had sustained the fight five hours.

#### 2. Space.

# 257. (Rule 37.) Extent of space is expressed by the Accusative: as,—

fössäs quindecim pedēs lātās (B. G. vii. 72), trenches fifteen feet broad. in omnī vītā suā quemque ā rēctā conscientiā trānsversum unguem non oportet discēdere (quoted in Att. xiii. 20), in all one's life, one should not depart a nail's breadth from straightforward conscience.

a. Measure is often expressed by the Genitive of Quality (§ 215. b):
 as, —

vallo pedum duodecim (B. G. ii. 30), in a rampart of twelve feet (in height).

b. Distance when considered as extent of space is expressed by the Accusative; when considered as degree of difference, by the Ablative (§ 250): as,—

quīnque diērum iter abest (Liv. xxx. 29), it is distant five days' march. trīgintā mīlibus passuum īnfrā eum locum (B. G. vi. 35), thirty miles below that place (below by thirty miles).

## 3. Place from Which and End of Motion.

258. (RULE 56.) The place from which is denoted by the Ablative with ab, de, or ex; the place to which (the End of Motion) by the Accusative with ad or in: as,—

1. Place from which: -

ā septentrione, from the north.

de provincia decedere, to come away from one's province.

de monte, down from the mountain.

negötiātor ex Āfricā (Verr. II. i, 14), a merchant from Africa.

ex Britanniā obsidēs mīsērunt (B. G. iv. 38), they sent hostages from Britain.

Mösa pröfluit ex monte Vosegō (id. iv. 10), the Meuse (flows from) rises in the Vosges mountains.

2. Place to which: -

ad fīnēs Hyrcāniae penetrat (Q. C. vi. 4, 2), he penetrates to the borders of Hyrcania.

in Africam nāvigāvit, he sailed to Africa.

in Italiam profectus, gone to Italy.

legatum in Treveros mīttit (B. G. iii. 11), he sends his lieutenant into the [country of the] Treveri.

NOTE 1. — In poetry the end of motion is often expressed by the Dative (§ 225. b. 3): as, —

it clāmor caelo (Æn. v. 451), a shout goes up to the sky.

a. (RULE 56.) The names of towns or small islands from which, as also domus and rūs, are put in the Ablative without a preposition: as,—

Roma profectus, having set out from Rome.

rure reversus, having returned from the country.

Romā abesse, to be absent, from Rome.

domō abīre, to leave home.

Note 1. — With names of towns, etc., ab is often used, commonly to denote from the vicinity of: as,—

erat ā Gergoviā dēspectus in castra (B. G. vii. 45), there was from about G. a view into the camp.

profectī ā domō (Liv. xl. 33), setting out from home.

NOTE 2.—The ablative without a preposition is used to denote the place from which in certain idiomatic expressions: as,—

cessisset patria (Mil. 68), he would have left his country.

patria pellere, to drive out of the country.

manu mittere, to emancipate (let go from the hand).

Note 3.— The poets often omit the preposition where it would be required in prose: as,—

mānīs Acheronte remīssos (Æn. v. 99), the spirits returned from Acheron.

b. (RULE 56.) The names of towns or small islands to which, as also domus and rus, are put in the Accusative without a preposition: as,

Romam rediit, he returned to Rome.

Dēlo Rhodum nāvigāre, to sail from Deles to Rhodes.

rūs ībō, I shall go into the country.

domum iit, he went home. [So, suas domos abīre, to go to their homes.]

NOTE I. — In this use domum may be modified by a possessive pronoun or a genitive. When otherwise modified, domum requires the preposition in. Thus, —

domum rēgis (Deiot. 17), to the king's house. [But also in M. Laecae domum (Cat. i. 8), to M. Læca's house.] But —

in domum magnam venīre, to come into a large house.

NOTE 2. — With the names of towns, etc., ad may be used in the sense of towards, to the neighborhood of: as, —

ad Alesiam proficiscuntur (B. G. vii. 76), they set out for Alesia. ad Alesiam perveniunt (id. vii. 79), they arrive at Alesia (come through to). ad Athēnās nāvigāre, to set sail for Athens (landing in the harbor).

NOTE 3. — The general words, urbs, oppidum, insula, require a preposition in either construction (to which or from which): as, ad urbem, ab urbe, ad urbem Romam, Romam ad urbem, ex urbe Roma.

Note 4. — Two or more nouns are sometimes expressed after one verb as limits of motion (see  $\S$  259. h).

Note 5.— The poets often omit the preposition with any noun: as,—
Italiam Lāvīniaque vēnit lītora (Æn. i. 2), he came to Italy and the

finīs Italōs mīttēre (id. iii. 440), you shall be allowed to reach the Italian boundaries.

REMARK. — The preposition is omitted with the supine in -um (§ 302) and in the following old phrases: —

exsequiās îre, to go to the funeral. Infitiās îre, to resort to denial. pessum îre, to go to ruin. pessum dare, to ruin (cf. perdō). vēnum dare, to sell (give to sale). [Hence vēndere.] vēnum īre, to be sold (go to sale). [Hence vēndere.] forās (used as adverb), out: as, forās ēgredī, to go out of doors.

## 4. The Place Where.

c. (Rule 57.) 1. The place where is denoted by the Ablative with the preposition in (Locative Ablative): as,—

in hāc urbe vītam dēgit, he passed his life in this city. sī in Galliā remanērent (B. G. iv. 8), if they should stay in Gaul. oppidum in īnsulā positum (id. vii. 58), a town situated on an island.

2. (RULE 57.) But names of towns and small islands are put in the Locative Case. (See 36. c, 40. a, and 62.)

Romae, at Rome (Roma). Athenis, at Athens (Athenae).

REMARK. — Large islands, and all places when thought of as a territory and not as a locality, are treated like names of countries: as, —

in Siciliā, in Sicily.

in Ithacā leporēs illātī moriuntur (Plin. H. N.), in Ithaca hares when carried there die. [Ulysses lived at Ithaca, would require Ithacae.]

NOTE 1. — With all names of places AT, meaning near (not in), is expressed by ad or apud with the Accusative. In the neighborhood of may be expressed by circa with the Accusative; among, by apud with the Accusative. Thus, —

pugna ad Cannas, the fight at Canna.

conchās ad Cāiētam legunt (De Or. ii. 22), at Caieta (along the shore). ad (apud) īnferōs, in the world below (near or among those below). apud Graecōs, among the Greeks. apud mē, at my house.

NOTE 2. — In citing an author, apud is regularly used; in citing a particular work, in. Thus, —

apud Xenophontem, in Xenophon. But in Xenophontis Oeconomico, in Xenophon's Œconomicus.

d. (RULE 57.) The Locative Case is also preserved in the following common nouns:—

domi (rarely domui), at home.

belli, militiae (in contrast to domi), abroad, in military service.

humi, on the ground.

rūrī, in the country.

foris, out-of-doors.

terra marique, by land and sea.

These are used like names of towns, without a preposition. So, also,—

heri(-e), yesterday.

vesperi (e), in the evening.

înfēlīcī arborī (Liv. i. 26), on the ill-omened tree.

e. The locative domi may be modified by a possessive adjective or a limiting genitive; but when it would be otherwise modified some other construction is used instead of the Locative. Thus,—

domi Caesaris, at Cæsar's house.

domī suae vel aliēnae, at his own or another's house. But—
in Mārcī Crassī castissimā domō (Cæl. 9), in the chaste home of Marcus
Crassus. [Cf. ex Anniānā Milōnis domō, § 184. d.]

- f. The place where is denoted by the Ablative without a preposition in several constructions:—
  - I. Regularly in many indefinite words, such as loco, parte: as,—quibus loco positis (De Or. iii. 153), when these are set in position. qua parte victi erant (Cic.), on the side where they were beaten. But—exercitum castris continuit (B. G. i. 48), he kept his army in camp. [Here the construction is influenced by means.]
- Frequently with nouns which are qualified by adjectives (regularly when tōtus is used): as,—

mediā urbe (Liv. i. 33), in the middle of the city.

tōtā Siciliā (Verr. iv. 51), throughout Sicily (in the whole of Sicily). So — tōtā Tarracīnā (De Or. ii. 240), in all Tarracīna (cf. c. 2. Rem.).

3. Freely in poetry: as, -

lîtore curvo (Æn. iii. 16), on the winding shore.

antro seclusa relinquit (id. iii. 446), she leaves them shut up in the cave.

Ēpīrō, Hesperiā (id. iii. 503), in Epirus, in Hesperia.

g. The way by which is expressed by the ablative without a preposition: as, —

viā breviōre equitēs praemīsī (Fam. x. 9), I sent forward the cavalry by a shorter road.

Aegaeō marī trāiēcit (Liv. xxxvii. 14), he crossed by way of the Ægean Sea. prōvehimur pelagō (Æn. iii. 506), we sail forth over the sea.

## 5. Special Uses of Time and Place.

## 259. The following special uses must be observed:

a. Many expressions have in Latin the construction of time when, where in English the main idea is rather of place: as,—

pūgnā Cannēnsī (or apud Cannās), in the fight at Cannæ.

lūdīs Romānīs, at the Roman games.

omnibus Gallicis bellis, in all the Gallic wars.

b. In many idiomatic expressions of time, the accusative with ad, in, or sub is used. Such are the following:—

supplicātio decreta est in Kalendās Iānuāriās, a thanksgiving was voted for the 1st of January.

convēnērunt ad diem, they assembled at the [appointed] day.

ad vesperum, till evening; sub vesperum, towards evening.

sub idem tempus, about the same time.

sub noctem, at night-fall.

c. Time during which or within which may be expressed by the ablative of a noun in the singular, with an ordinal numeral: as,—

quīntō diē, within [just] four days (lit., on the fifth day). [The Romans counted both ends, see § 376. d.]

regnat iam sextum annum, he has reigned going on six years (he is reigning now the sixth year).

But also, - rēgnāvit iam sex annos, he has already reigned for six years.

d. Difference of time before or after anything is variously expressed: as, —

post (ante) trēs annōs, post tertium annum, trēs post annōs, tertium post annum, tribus post annōs, tertiō post annō (§ 250), three years after.

tribus annīs (tertiō annō) post exsilium (postquam ēiectus est,) three years after his exile.

his tribus proximis annis, within the last three years. paucis annis, a few years hence.

abhinc annös trēs (tribus annīs), ante hōs trēs annōs, three years ago. triennium est cum (trēs annī sunt cum), it is three years since. octāvō mēnse quam (see § 262. note 2), the eighth month after.

e. In Dates the phrase ante diem (a. d.) with an ordinal, or the ordinal alone, is followed by an accusative, like a preposition; and the phrase itself may also be governed by a preposition.

The year is expressed by the names of the consuls in the ablative absolute, often without a conjunction (§ 255. a): as,—

- is dies erat a. d. quintum Kalendas Aprilis L. Pisone A. Gabinio consulibus (B. G. i. 6), that day was the 5th before the calends of April (March 28), in the consulship of Piso and Gabinius.
- in a. d. v. Kal. Nov. (Cat. i. 7), to the 5th day before the calends of November (Oct. 28).
- xv. Kal. Sextīlīs, the 15th day before the calends of August (July 18).

  [Full form: quīntō decimō diē ante Kalendās.]
- f. For AT, meaning near (not in), see § 258. c. note 1.
- g. When motion to a place is implied in English, though not expressed, the accusative with or without a preposition must be used in Latin: as,—

coniūrātī in cūriam convēnērunt, the conspirators met in the Senate-house (came together into the Senate-house).

concilium domum suam convocāvit, he called a council at his own house.

- h. When two or more names of place follow a verb of motion, each must be under its own construction. Thus,
  - quadriduo quo haec gesta sunt res ad Chrysogonum in castra L. Sullae Volaterras defertur (Rosc. Am. 20), within four days after this was done, the matter was reported To Chrysogonus IN Sulla's camp AT Volaterra.

#### VII. USE OF PREPOSITIONS.

- 260. Some Prepositions are used with the Accusative, some with the Ablative, and a few with both.
- a. Verbs of placing, though implying motion, take the construction of the place in which.

Such are: pono and its compounds (except impono), loco, colloco, statuo, constituo, etc.

statuitur eques Romanus in Aproni convivio (Verr. iii. 62), a Roman knight is brought into a banquet of Apronius.

sī in ūnō Pompēiō omnia ponerētis (Man. 59), if you made everything depend on Pompey alone.

b. Position is frequently expressed by the Ablative with ab (rarely ex), properly meaning from: as,—

ā tergō, in the rear.

ā sinistrā, on the left hand. [Cf. hinc, on this side.]

magna ex parte, in a great degree (from, i.e. in, a great part).

c. Super in the sense of concerning takes the Ablative; in all other senses it takes the Accusative; as, —

hāc super rē (Cic.), concerning this thing.

sed hac re super nimis (Att. x. 8, 10), but more than enough on that point. super culmina tecti (Æn. ii. 695), above the house-top.

super lateres coria inducuntur (R. C. ii. 10), hides are drawn over the bricks.

super Numidiam (Jug. 19), beyond Numidia.

super terrae tumulum (Legg. ii. 66), on the mound of earth.

Note. — The ablative is used in poetry with super in other senses: as, —

līgna super focō largē repōnēns (Hor. Od. i. 9. 5), piling logs generously on the fire.

nocte super mediā (Æn. ix. 61), after midnight.

d. Subter takes the Accusative, except sometimes in poetry.

subter togam (Liv.), under his mantle. But — subter litore (Catull.), below the shore.

e. Tenus (which follows its noun) regularly takes the Ablative, but sometimes the Genitive (§ 223. e). Thus,—

Taurō tenus (Deiot. 36), as far as Taurus.

capulo tenus (Æn. ii. 553), up to the hilt. .

Corcyrae tenus (Liv. xxvi. 24), as far as Corcyra.

261. Many words may be construed either as Prepositions or as Adverbs: thus,—

a. The adverbs prīdiē, postrīdiē, propius, proximē, usque — also (less frequently) the adjectives propior and proximus — may be followed by the Accusative (cf. §§ 207. b, 234. e): as, —

prīdiē Nonās Iūniās (Cic.), the day before the Nones of June (June 4). ipse propior montem suos collocat (Jug. 49), he stations his men nearer the hill.

proximē Pompēium sedēbam (Att. 1. 14), I sat next to Pompey. [Cf. proximus Pompēium sedēbam.]

pars insulae quae est propius sölis occāsum (B. G. iv. 28), the part of the island which is nearer the west (sunset).

terminos usque Libyae (Just.), to the bounds of Libya.

Note. — Pridië and postridië take also the Genitive (§ 223.  $\ell$ . note 2). Propior, propius, proximus, and proximë take also the Dative, or the Ablative with ab. Usque is commonly followed by ad. Thus,—

propius Tiberi (Nep.), nearer the Tiber. propius ab urbe (Plin.), nearer the city. usque ad mare, to the sea.

b. The adverbs palam, procul, simul, may be used as prepositions and take the Ablative (so, perhaps, intus): as,—

rem crēditorī palam populo solvit (Liv. vi. 14), he paid the debt in the presence of the people.

haud procul castrīs in modum mūnicipiī exstrūcta (Tac. H. iv. 22), not far from the camp, built up like a town.

simul nobis habitat barbarus (Ov. Tr. v. 10. 29), close among us dwells the barbarian.

Note. — But simul regularly takes cum; procul is usually followed by ab in classic use; and palam as a preposition is comparatively late. Thus, —

procul ā marī, far from the sea.

nōbīscum simul, at the same time with ourselves.

c. The adverb clam is found with the Accusative or Ablative, rarely with the Genitive or Dative: as, —

clam matrem suam (Plaut.), unknown to his mother.

clam mihi (id.), in secret from me.

clam patris (id.), without his father's knowledge.

clam vöbis (B. C. ii. 32), without your knowledge.

d. Prepositions often retain their original meaning as adverbs. So, especially,—

1. Ante and post in relations of time: as, -

quae paulo ante praecepta dedimus (Cic.), a little while ago, etc. post tribus diebus, three days after (cf. § 259. d).

2. Adversus, contra, circiter, prope: as, -

adversus resistere, to hold out in opposition. Aeolus haec contrā, thus Æolus in reply.

3. In general those ending in -a: as, -

forte fuit iuxta tumulus, there happened to be a mound close by.

262. Some prepositions or adverbs which imply Comparison are followed, like comparatives, by quam, either attached to them or separated by several words, or even clauses

neque ante dimisit eum quam fidem dedit (Liv. xxxix. 10), nor did he let him go until he gave a pledge.

post diem tertium quam dixerat (Mil. 44), the third day after he said it.

Note 1.—Such words are ante, prius, post, pridië, postridië; also magis and prae in compounds: as,—

Catō ipse iam servīre quam pūgnāre māvult (Att. vii. 15), Cato himself by this time would rather be a slave than fight.

NOTE 2. — The ablative of time (§ 256) is sometimes followed by quam in the same way: as, —

octāvõ mēnse quam (Liv. xxi. 15), within eight months after, etc.

263. For a or ab with the Ablative of Agent, see § 246.

Note. — The following prepositions sometimes follow their nouns: ad, citrā, circā, contrā, dē, ē (ex), inter, iūxtā, penes, propter, ūltrā, tenus (regularly), and occasionally others: as,—

[ūsus] quem penes arbitrium est et iūs et nōrma loquendī (Hor. A. P. 72), custom, under whose control is the choice, right, and rule of speech. cūius ā mē corpus est cremātum, quod contrā decuit ab illō meum (C. M.

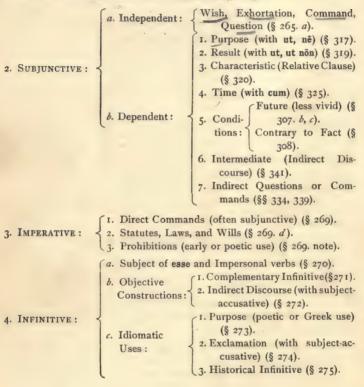
84), whose body I burned [on the funeral pile], while on the contrary (lit. contrary to which) mine should have been burned by him.

## 3. SYNTAX OF THE VERB.

## I. MOODS AND TENSES.

The proper verbal constructions may be thus classified: —

I. INDICATIVE: Direct Assertion or Question (§ 264).



## MOODS.

## I. THE INDICATIVE.

264. The Indicative is the mood of direct assertions or questions when there is no modification of the verbal idea except that of time.

- a. The Tenses of the Indicative generally denote time, as present, past, or future, with reference to the speaker (§§ 276 ff.).
- b. The Indicative is sometimes used where the English idiom would suggest the Subjunctive: as, —

longum est, it would be tedious [if, etc.]. satius erat, it would have been better [if, etc.]. persequī possum, I might follow up [in detail].

- c. The Future is sometimes used for the Imperative (§ 269. f).
- d. The Indicative is used in some kinds of conditions (§§ 306, 308).

## II. THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

265. The Subjunctive in general expresses the verbal idea with some modification <sup>1</sup> such as is expressed in English by auxiliaries, by the infinitive, or by the rare subjunctive (§ 112. b).

The uses of the subjunctive are independent or dependent.

- a. The Subjunctive is used independently to express -
  - (1) An Exhortation, Concession, or Command (Hortatory, § 266).
  - (2) A Wish (Optative, § 267).
  - (3) A Question of Doubt or Deliberation (Deliberative, § 268).
- b. The Subjunctive is used in dependent clauses to express—
  - (1) Purpose (Final, § 317).
  - (2) Result (Consecutive, § 319).
  - (3) Characteristic (§ 320).
  - (4) Time (Temporal, § 325).
  - (5) Indirect Ouestion (§ 334).
  - (6) Condition future or contrary to fact (§§ 307. b, c, 308).
- c. The subjunctive is also used with Particles of Comparison (§ 312), and in subordinate clauses in the Indirect Discourse (§ 336).
- <sup>1</sup> These modifications are of various kinds, each of which had its own special development. The subjunctive in Latin has also many idiomatic uses (see clauses of Result and Time), where the English does not modify the verbal idea at all, but expresses it directly; but in these cases the Latin merely takes a different view of the action, and has developed its construction differently from the English.

## r. Hortatory Subjunctive.

266. (RULE 68.) The Hortatory Subjunctive is used to express an exhortation, a command, a concession, or a condition.

hos latrones interficiamus (B. G. vii. 38), let us kill these robbers.

caveant intemperantiam, meminerint verēcundiae (Off. i. 122), let them shun excess and cherish modesty.

NOTE I. — The simple subjunctive of exhortation and command takes the present tense, less commonly the perfect. The Perfect represents an action as completed in future time, but in most cases is equivalent to the Present. Other tenses are used in some varieties of this construction (see  $\epsilon$ , note, and  $\epsilon$ ).

REMARK. - The negative particle with the hortatory subjunctive is ne.

a. The Second Person is used only of an *indefinite subject*, except in prohibition, in early Latin, and in poetry (cf. § 269. b). Thus,—

iniūriās fortūnae, quās ferre nequeās, dēfugiendō relinquās (Tusc. v. 118), the wrongs of fortune, which you cannot bear, leave behind by flight. exoriāre aliquis ultor (Æn. iv. 625), rise, some avenger.

në conferas culpam in më (Ter. Eun. 388), don't lay the blame on me.

b. In Prohibitions addressed to a definite person, the perfect is more common than the present (cf. § 269, a): as,—

hoc facito : hoc ne feceris (Div. ii. 127), thou shalt do this; thou shalt not do that.

tū nē quaesieris (Hor.), do not inquire.

nec mihi illud dixeris (Fin. i. 25), and do not say that to me.

c. The hortatory subjunctive may express a Concession, sometimes with ut, ne, quamvis quamlibet, or similar words (cf. § 313. a): as, —

fuerit alis: tibi quando esse coepit (Verr. II. i, 37), suppose he was [so] to others, when did he begin to be to you?

ut rationem Plato nullam afferret (Tusc. i. 49), though Plato adduced no reasons.

nēmō is unquam fuit: nē fuerit (Or. 101), there never was such a one [you will say]: granted (let there not have been).

quamvīs scelerātī illī fuissent (De Or. i. 230), however guilty they might have been.

Note. — In this use the Present refers to future or indefinite time, the Imperfect to present or past time (the concession being impliedly untrue), the Perfect to past or completed future time, the Pluperfect to completed action in past time (the concession being usually untrue).

d. The hortatory subjunctive may denote a Proviso or Condition (see §§ 310. b, 314).

e. The Imperfect and Pluperfect of the hortatory subjunctive denote an UNFULFILLED OBLIGATION in past time: as,—

morerētur, inquiēs (Rab. Post. 28), he should have died, you will say. potius diceret (Off. iii. 88). he should rather have said. nē poposcissēs (Att. ii. 1, 3), you should not have asked.

## 2. Optative Subjunctive.

267. (RULE 69.) The Subjunctive is used to express a Wish. The present tense denotes the wish as possible, the imperfect as unaccomplished in present time, the pluperfect as unaccomplished in past time. Thus,—

ita vivam (Att. v. 15), so may I live (as true as I live).

nē vīvam sī sciō (id. iv. 16, 8), I wish I may not live if I know.

dī tē perduint (Deiot. 21), the gods confound thee!

valeant, valeant, cīvēs mei; valeant, sint incolumēs (Mil. 93), farewell [he says], my fellow-citizens; may they be secure from harm.

di facerent sine patre forem (Ov. Met. viii. 72), would that the gods allowed me to be without a father (but they do not)!

REMARK. — The negative particle with the optative subjunctive is nē.

a. The Perfect in this use is antiquated: as, —

male dī tibi faxint (Plaut. Curc. 131), may the gods do thee a mischief. quod ōmen dī āverterint (Phil. xii. 14, in a religious formula), and may the gods avert this omen.

ut pereat positum röbīgine tēlum (Hor. Sat. ii. 1, 43), may the weapon unused perish with rust.

falsus utinam vātēs sim (Liv. xxi. 10), I wish I may be a false prophet. utinam P. Clōdius vīveret (Mil. 103), would that Clodius were now alive. 6 sī angulus ille accēdat (Hor. Sat. ii. 6. 8), oh! if that corner might only be added.

NOTE 1.—The subjunctive with uti, etc., was originally deliberative, meaning how may I, etc. (§ 268). The subjunctive with ō sī (poetical) is a protasis (§ 312. note); sī alone is sometimes used to express a wish in the same way: as,—

- sī nunc sē nobīs ille aureus rāmus ostendat (Æn. vi. 187), if now that golden branch would only show itself to us!
- c. Velim and vellem, and their compounds, with a subjunctive or infinitive, are often equivalent to an optative subjunctive: as,
  - de Menedemo vellem verum fuisset, de regina velim verum sit (Att. xv. 4, 4), about Menedemus I wish it had been true; about the queen I hope it may be.

nöllem accidisset tempus (Fam. iii. 10, 2), I wish the time never had come.

## 3. Deliberative Subjunctive.

268. (Rule 70.) The Subjunctive is used in questions implying (1) doubt, indignation, or (2) an impossibility of the thing being done: as,—

quid höc homine facias? quod supplicium dignum libidini eius invenias (Verr. ii. 40), what are you to do with this man? what fit penalty can you devise for his wantonness?

an ego non venirem (Phil. ii. 3), what, should I not have come?

mihi umquam bonorum praesidium defuturum putarem (Mil. 94), could I think that the defence of good men would ever fail me?

quis enim celaverit ignem (Ov. Her. xv. 7), who could conceal the flame?

REMARK. — This use is apparently derived from the Hortatory Subjunctive: quid faciāmus? — faciāmus [aliquid], quid? let us do — what? Once established, it was readily transferred to the past: quid faciam? what AM I to do? quid facerem? what WAS I to do? Questions implying impossibility, however, cannot be distinguished from Apodosis.

Note. — The Deliberative Subjunctive is sometimes called *Dubitative*.

## III. THE IMPERATIVE.

-11

269. The Imperative is used in Commands and Entreaties: as,—

consulite vobis, prospicite patriae, conservate vos (Cat. iv. 3), have a care for yourselves, guard the country, preserve yourselves.

dic Marce Tulli sententiam, Marcus Tullius, state your opinion.

Note. — In Negative Commands (prohibitions) the Present Imperative with ne is used by early writers and the poets: as, —

nē timē (Plaut. Curc. 520), don't be afraid.

nimium në crëde colori (Ecl. ii. 17), trust not too much to complexion. equo në crëdite (Æn. ii. 48), trust not the horse.

- a. (RULE 71.) Prohibition is regularly expressed in classic prose:—
  - 1. By ne with the second person of the Perfect Subjunctive; as, ne territus fueris (Tac. H. i. 16), don't be alarmed.
    - 2. By noli with the infinitive: as, -

noli putare (Fam. xiv. 2), do not suppose (be unwilling to suppose).

Note. — The poets frequently use instead of noll other words of similar meaning (cf. § 273. c): as, —

parce piās scelerāre manūs (Æn. iii. 42), forbear to defile your pious hands.

3. By cave with or without ne (colloquially fac ne) with the Present or Perfect Subjunctive (§ 266. b): as,—

cave putes (Att. vii. 20), don't think.

cave dīxeris, don't say so.

fac ne quid aliud cures (Fam. xvi. 11), see that you attend to nothing else.

NOTE. — Other negatives sometimes take the place of  $n\bar{e}$ : as,—non dubitaveris (Sen. Q. N. i. 3, 3), you must not doubt. nihil ignoveris (Mur. 65), grant no pardon (pardon nothing).

b. General Prohibitions addressed to no definite person are regularly expressed by the Present Subjunctive with  $n\bar{e}$  (cf. c, below): as,—

denique isto bono ütare dum adsit: cum absit ne requiras (C. M. 33), in short, use this good while present; when wanting, do not regret it.

Note. — The poets and early writers sometimes use the Present Subjunctive with ne in prohibitions not general: as, —

molestus në sîs (Plaut. Most. 771), don't be troublesome. në sîs patruus mihi (Hor. Sat. ii. 3. 88), don't be a [harsh] uncle to me.

- c. The third person of the Imperative is antiquated or poetic: —

  iūsta imperia suntō, eīsque cīvēs modestē pārentō (Leg. iii. 6), let there

  be lawful authorities, and let the citizens strictly obey them.
- <sup>1</sup> In prohibitions the Subjunctive with ne is hortatory; that with cave is an object clause (originally hortatory, cf. § 331. f. Rem.).

Note. — In prose the Hortatory Subjunctive is commonly used instead (§ 266): as, —

haec igitur lex in amīcitiā sanciātur (Læl. 40), let this law be laid down in case of friendship.

- d. The Future Imperative is used in commands, etc., where there is a distinct reference to future time: viz., —
- 1. In connection with a condition precedent (as a future, a future perfect, or an imperative). Thus,—

Phyllida mītte mihī, meus est nātālis, Iollā; cum faciam vitulā pro frūgibus ipse venīto (Ecl. iii. 76), send Phyllis to me, it is my birthday, Iollas; when I sacrifice a heifer for the harvest, come yourself.

dīc quibus in terrīs, etc., et Phyllida sõlus habētō (id. iii. 107), tell in what lands, etc., and have Phyllis for yourself.

2. With adverbs or other expressions of Time: as, -

crās petito, dabitur (Pl. Merc. 770), ask to-morrow [and] it shall be given.

3. In general directions, as Precepts, Statutes, and Wills: as, — cum valētūdinī consulueris, tum consulito nāvigātionī (Fam xvi. 4), when you have attended to your health, then look to your sailing.

Boreā flante, nē arātō, sēmen nē iacitō (Plin. H. N. xviii. 77), when the north wind blows, plough not, nor sow your seed.

e. The verbs scio, memini, and habeo (in the sense of consider), regularly use the Future Imperative instead of the Present: as,—

fīliolō mē auctum scītō (Att. i. 2), learn that I am blessed with a little boy. sīc habētō, mī Tirō (Fam. xvi. 4), so understand it, my good Tiro.

de palla memento, amabo (Pl. Asin. 939), remember, dear, about the gown.

f. The Future Indicative is sometimes used for the Imperative; and quin (why not?) with the Present Indicative may have the force of a command: as,—

sī quid acciderit novī, faciës ut sciam (Fam. xiv. 8), you will let me know if anything new happens.

quin accipis (Ter. Heaut. 832)? here, take it (why not take it?).

g. Instead of the simple Imperative, cura, fac, or velim, followed by the Subjunctive with or without ut is often used, especially in colloquial language: as,—

cūrā ut Romae sīs (Att. i. 2), take care to be at Rome.

fac ut valētūdinem cūrēs (Fam. xiv. 17), see that you take care of your health. [Cf. rūs eō. fac, amābō (Ter. Eun. 533), I'm going into the country. Do, please.]

domî adsītis facite (id. 506), be at home, do.



## IV. THE INFINITIVE.

## 1. Infinitive as Subject, etc.

270. (RULE 58.) The Infinitive, with or without a subject-accusative, may be used with est and similar verbs

(1) as the Subject, (2) in Apposition with the subject, or

(3) as a Predicate Nominative. Thus, -

1. Subject: as,-

dolēre malum est (Fin. v. 84), to suffer pain is an evil.

pulchrum est benefacere rei publicae (Sall. Cat. 3), it is a noble thing to benefit the state.

mötös praestat componere flüctüs (Æn. i. 135), it is better to calm the troubled waves.

2. In Apposition with the Subject: as, -

proinde quasi iniūriam facere id dēmum esset imperio ūtī (Sall. Cat. 12), just as if this,—to commit injustice,—were to use power. [Here facere is in apposition with id.]

3. Predicate Nominative : as, —

id est convenienter nātūrae vīvere (Fin. iv. 41), that is to live in conformity with nature. [Cf. ūtī in the last example.]

Note I. — An infinitive may also be used as Direct Object in connection with a Predicate Accusative, or as Appositive with such Direct Object; as,—

istūć ipsum non esse cum fueris miserrimum puto (Tusc. i. 12), for I think this very thing most wretched, not to be when one has been.

Note 2.—An Appositive or Predicate noun used with an infinitive in any of these constructions is put in the Accusative, whether the infinitive has a subject expressed or not. Thus,—

non esse cupidum pecunia (Parad. 51), to be free from desires (not to be desirous) is money in hand.

a. The infinitive as subject is not common except with est and similar verbs, but is occasionally used with verbs apparently more active in meaning: as,—

quos omnis eadem cupere, eadem odisse, eadem metuere in unum coegit (Jug. 31, 10), all of whom the fact of desiring, hating, and fearing the same things has united into one.

ingenuās didicisse fideliter artēs ēmollit morēs (Ov. ex P. ii. 9. 48), faithfully to have learned liberal arts softens the manners.

posse loqui eripitur (Ov. M. ii. 483), the power of speech is taken away.

b. The infinitive is used with many impersonal verbs and expressions, partly as subject and partly as complementary infinitive (§ 271).

Such are libet, licet, oportet, decet, placet, visum est, pudet, piget, necesse est, opus est, etc.

id prīmum in poētīs cernī licet (De Or. iii. 27), this may be seen first in poets.

reperiëbat quid dici opus esset (Brut. 215), he found what needed to be said.

neque mē vīxisse paenitet (C. M. 84), I do not feel sorry to have lived.

NOTE I. — These are generally not real cases of the infinitive used as subject, but they approach that construction.

c. Rarely the infinitive is used exactly like the accusative of a noun: as,—

beate vivere alis in alio, vos in voluptate ponitis (Fin. ii. 86), a happy life different [philosophers] base on different things, you on pleasure.

## 2. Complementary Infinitive.

271. (RULE 59.) Verbs which imply another action of the same subject to complete their meaning take the infinitive without a subject-accusative: as,—

hōc queō dīcere (Cat. Maj. 32), this I can say. mīttō quaerere (Rosc. Am. 53), I omit to ask.

vereor laudāre praesentem (N. D. i. 58), I fear to praise a man to his face (one who is present).

Such are verbs denoting to be able, dare, undertake, remember, forget, be accustomed, begin, continue, cease, hesitate, learn, know how, fear, and the like.

Note. — The mark of this construction is that no Subject of these infinitives is in general admissible or conceivable.

a. Many verbs take either a subjunctive clause or a complementary infinitive, without difference of meaning. Such are verbs signifying willingness, necessity, propriety, resolve, command, prohibition, effort, and the like (cf. § 331): as,—

student excellere (Off. i. 116), they aim to excel.

cum statuissem scribere ad te aliquid (Off. i. 4), when I had resolved to address something to you.

istum exheredare in animo habebat (Rosc. Am. 52), he had it in mind to deprive him of the inheritance.

×

Note 1. — With some of these verbs an infinitive with subject-accusative may be used as *object*, taking the place of a *complementary* infinitive. In this use the subject of the infinitive and that of the main verb are of course the same. Thus, —

cupiō mē esse clēmentem (Cat. i. 4) = cupiō esse clēmens, I desire to be merciful (cf. § 331. b. note).

NOTE 2. — Some verbs of these classes never take the subjunctive, but are identical in meaning with others which do: as, —

- 1 quos tueri debent deserunt (Off. i. 28), they forsake those whom they should protect.
- non lubet fugere aveo pugnare (Att. ii. 18, 3), I have no desire to run away, I'm anxious to fight.
- b. Some verbs of these classes iubeō and vetō regularly may take (as object) the infinitive with a subject different from that of the main verb (see § 331. a): as, —
- signa inferri iubet (Liv. xlii. 59), he orders the standards to be advanced.
- Pompēius . . . rem ad arma dēdūcī studēbat (B. C. i. 4), Pompey was anxious to have matters come to open war.
- c. A Predicate Noun or Adjective after a complementary infinitive takes the case of the subject of the main verb: as,—
- n fierique studebam eius prūdentiā doctior (Læl. 1), I was eager to become more wise through his wisdom.
  - sciō quam soleās esse occupātus (Fam. xvi. 21, 7), I know how busy you usually are (are wont to be).
- Note. If the construction of the main verb is impersonal, a predicate noun or adjective is in the accusative (but for licet, etc., see § 272. a. 2). Thus, —
- 7 peregrīnī officium est minimē in aliēnā esse rē pūblicā cūriōsum (Off. i. 125), it is a stranger's duty to be by no means curious in a foreign state.

# 3. Infinitive with Subject-Accusative.

272. (RULE 60.) The Infinitive, with Subject-Accusative, is used with verbs and other expressions of knowing, thinking, telling, and perceiving (Indirect Discourse, § 336): as,—

dīcit montem ab hostibus tenērī (B. G. i. 22), he says that the hill is held by the enemy. [Direct: mons ab hostibus tenētur.]

REMARK. — The Infinitive Clause may be—1. the Direct Object of the verb: as, Caesarem adesse nuntiavit, he reported that Caesar was present; 2. the Subject of the same verb in the passive: as, Caesarem adesse nuntiatum est, it was reported that Caesar was present; 3. the Predicate Nominative after some such phrase as rumor est: as, rumor erat Caesarem adesse, there was a report that Caesar was present.

- a. I. With certain impersonal verbs and expressions that take the infinitive as an apparent subject ( $\S$  270. b), the personal subject of the action may be expressed—
  - (1) By a dative, depending on the verb or verbal phrase: or
- (2) By an accusative expressed as the subject of the infinitive.

  Thus. —

rogant ut id sibi facere liceat (B. G. i. 7), they ask that it be allowed them to do this.

- exstinguī hominī suō tempore optābile est (Cat. Maj. 85), it is desirable for a man to die at the appointed time.
- 2. With licet regularly, and other verbs occasionally, a predicate noun or adjective following the infinitive may be in the dative: as, licuit esse ōtiōsō Themistoclī (Tusc. i. 33), Themistocles might have been inactive (it was allowed to T. to be inactive).
  - cur his esse liberos non licet (Flacc. 71), why is it not allowed these men to be free?

non est stantibus omnibus necesse dicere (Marc. 33), it is not necessary for all to speak standing.

Note. — When the subject is not expressed, as being indefinite (one, anybody), a predicate noun or adjective must be in the accusative (cf. § 271. c. note): as, —

vel pace vel bello clarum sieri licet (Sall. Cat. 3), one can become illustrious either in peace or in war.

b. In poetry, by a Greek idiom, a Predicate Noun or Adjective in the indirect discourse sometimes agrees with the subject of the main verb: as,—

sēnsit mediōs dēlāpsus in hostēs (Æn. ii. 377), he found himself fallen among the foe. [In prose: sē esse dēlāpsum.]

## 4. Infinitive of Purpose.

- **273.** In a few cases the Infinitive retains its original meaning of Purpose.
- a. The infinitive is used after habeo, do, ministro, in isolated passages instead of a subjunctive clause: as,—

tantum habeō pollicērī (Fam. i. 5), so much I have to promise. [Here the more formal construction would be quod pollicear.] merīdiē bibere datō (Cato R. R. 89), give (to) drink at noonday.

b. Parātus, suētus and their compounds (used as adjectives) take the infinitive, like the verbs from which they come: as,—

currū succēdere suētī (Æn. iii. 541), accustomed to being harnessed to the chariot.

adsuēfactī superārī (B. G. vi. 24), used to being conquered.

Note. — These words more commonly in prose take the gerund or gerundive construction (§§ 296 ff.) either in the Dative, the Genitive, or the Accusative with ad. Thus, —

? alendîs lîberîs suētī (Tac. Ann. xiv. 27), accustomed to supporting children. însuētus nāvigandī (B. G. v. 6), unused to making voyages.

corpora însuēta ad onera portanda (B. C. i. 78), bodies unaccustomed to carry burdens.

c. In poetry and later writers almost any verb may have the infinitive, after the analogy of verbs of more literal meaning that take it in prose: as, — /

parce scelerare (Æn. iii. 42), forbear to pollute.

d. Many adjectives take the infinitive in poetry following a Greek idiom: as, —

cantārī dīgnus (Ecl. v. 54), worthy to be sung. [In prose: quī cantētur.]
7 cantāre perītī (Ecl. x. 32), skilled in song.

nescia vinci pectora (Æn. xii. 527), hearts not knowing how to yield.

e. The poets and early writers often use the infinitive to express purpose when there is no analogy with any prose construction: as,—

loricam donat habere viro (Æn. v. 262), he gives the hero a breastplate to

non ferro Libycos populare Penates venimus (An. i. 527), we have not come to lay waste with the sword the Libyan homes.

Note. - So rarely in prose writers of the classic period.

f. For the infinitive used instead of a substantive clause of purpose, see § 331. a-g.

NOTE. — For tempus est abīre, see § 298. note.

g. Rarely in poetry the infinitive is used to express result: as,—fingit ecum tenerā docilem cervīce magister īre viam, etc. (Hor. Ep. i. 2. 64), makes the horse gentle so as to go, etc.

hīc levāre . . . pauperem labōribus vocātus audit (Hor. Od. ii. 18. 38), he when called, hears, so as to relieve, etc.

## 5. Exclamatory Infinitive.

**274.** The Infinitive, with subject-accusative, may be used in Exclamations (cf. § 240. d): as,—

të in tantās aerumnās propter mē incidisse (Fam. xiv. 1), alas! that you should have fallen into such grief for me.

mene incepto desistere victam (Æn. i. 37), what! I beaten desist from my purpose?

Note. — The Present and the Perfect Infinitive are used in this construction with their ordinary distinction of time.

#### 6. Historical Infinitive.

275. (RULE 61.) The Infinitive is often used for the Imperfect Indicative in narration, and takes a subject in the nominative: as.—

tum Catilina pollicērī novās tabulās (Sall. Cat. 21), then Catiline promised abolition of debts (clean ledgers).

ego înstăre ut mihi responderet (Verr. ii. 188), I kept urging him to answer me.

pars cēdere, aliī īnsequī; neque sīgna neque ordines servāre; ubi quemque perīculum ceperat, ibi resistere āc propulsāre, arma, tēla, equī, virī, hostes atque cīvēs permīxtī, nihil consilio neque imperio agī; fors omnia regere (Jug. 51), a part give way, others press on; they hold neither to standards nor ranks; where danger overtook, there each would stand and fight; arms, weapons, horses, men, foe and friend, mingled in confusion; nothing went by counsel or command; chance ruled all.

Note. — This construction is not strictly historical, but rather descriptive, and is never used to state a mere historical fact.

#### TENSES.

## I. TENSES OF INCOMPLETE ACTION.

## I. Present (General Use).

276. The Present Tense denotes an action or state (1) as now taking place or existing; and so (2) as incomplete in present time, or (3) as indefinite, referring to no particular time, but denoting a general truth. Thus,—

- senătus haec intellegit, consul videt, hic tamen vivit (Cat. i. 2), the Senate knows this, the consul sees it, yet this man lives.
- tibi concēdō meās sēdēs (Div. i. 104), I give you my seat (an offer which may or may not be accepted).
- obsequium amīcos, vēritās odium parit (Ter. And. 68), flattery gains friends, truth hatred. [General truth.]
- a. The Present, with expressions of duration of time, especially iam did, iam dudum, denotes an action continuing in the present, but begun in the past (cf. § 277. b): as,—

tē iam dūdum hortor (Cat. i. 12), I have long urged you.

patimur iam multõs annõs (Verr. v. 126), we suffer now these many years.

[The perfect would imply, we no longer suffer.]

NOTE I. — In this use the present is commonly to be rendered by the perfect in English.

NOTE 2. — Similarly the Present Imperative with iam dūdum indicates that the action commanded ought to have been done or was wished for long ago (cf. the Perfect Imperative in Greek): as,—

iam dūdum sūmite poenās (Æn. ii. 103), exact the penalty long delayed.

b. The Present sometimes denotes an action attempted or begun in present time, but never completed (Conative Present, cf. § 277. c): as.—

iam iamque manū tenet (Æn. ii. 530), and now, even now, he attempts to grasp him.

densos fertur in hostis (id. 511), he starts to rush into the thickest of the foe.

dēcerno quinquāgintā diērum supplicātiones (Phil. xiv. 29), I move for fifty days' thanksgiving. [Cf. senātus dēcrēvit, the senate ordained.]

c. The Present, especially in colloquial language and poetry, is often used for the Future: as, —

Imusne sēssum (De Or. iii. 17), shall we take a seat (are we going to sit)? haud mūtō factum (Ter. And. 40), I do not wish to change it (I am not trying to change).

hodiē uxōrem dūcis (id. 321), are you to be married to-day?

sī pereō hominum manibus periisse iuvābit (Æn. iii. 606), if I perish, it will be pleasant to perish at the hands of men (cf. § 307. a. note).

#### 2. Historical Present.

d. The Present in lively narrative is often used for the Historical Perfect (Historical Present): as, —

affertur nüntius Syrācūsās; curritur ad praetōrium; Cleomenēs, quamquam nox erat, tamen in pūblicō esse nōn audet; inclūdit sē domī (Verr. v. 92), the news is brought to Syracuse; they run to headquarters; Cleomenes, though it was night, does not venture to be abroad; he shuts himself up at home.

Note. — This usage, common in all languages, comes from imagining past events as going on before our eyes (repraesentātiō).

## 3. Present with dum.

c. Dum, while, regularly takes the Present Indicative in reference to past events.

In translating, the English Imperfect must generally be used. Thus, —

hōc dum nārrat, forte audīvī (Ter. Heaut. 272), I happened to hear this while she was telling it.

Note. — A past tense with dum (usually so long as) makes the time emphatic by contrast. But a few irregular cases of dum with a past tense occur where no contrast is intended. Thus,—

nec enim dum eram vöbīscum animum meum vidēbātis (Cat. Maj. 79), while I was with you, you could n't see my soul. [Here the time when he was alive is contrasted with that after his death.]

coorta est pūgna, pār dum constabant ordines (Liv. xxii. 47), a conflict began, well matched as long as the ranks stood firm.

But — dum unum adscendere gradum conatus est, venit in periculum (Mur. 55), while he attempted to climb one step [in rank] he fell into danger.

f. The present is regularly used in quoting writers whose works are extant: as,—

Epicurus vēro ea dicit (Tusc. ii. 17), but Epicurus says such things.

## 4. Imperfect.

277. The Imperfect denotes an action or a state as continued or repeated in past time: as,—

Socrates ita censebat itaque disseruit (Tusc. i. 72), Socrates thought so (habitually), and so he spoke (then).

iamque rubescebat Aurora (Æn. iii. 521), and now the dawn was blushing.

Note. — The Imperfect is a descriptive tense and denotes an action conceived as in progress or a state of things as actually observed. Hence in many verbs it does not differ in meaning from the Perfect. Thus rex erat

and rex fuit may often be used indifferently; but the former describes the condition while the latter only states it. The English is less exact in distinguishing these two modes of statement. Hence the Latin Imperfect is often translated by the English Preterite. Thus,—

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Aeduī graviter ferēbant, neque lēgātōs ad Caesarem mīttere audēbant (B. G. v. 6), the Ædui were displeased and did not dare, etc. [Here the Imperfects describe the state of things.] But—

id tulit factum graviter Indutiomarus (id. v. 4), Indutiomarus was displeased, etc. [Here the Perfect merely states the fact.]

aedificia vīcōsque habēbant (id. iv. 4), they had buildings and villages.

REMARK. — The Imperfect represents a present tense transferred to past time. Hence all the meanings which the present has derived from the continuance of the action belong also to the imperfect in reference to past time (see details below).

- a. The Imperfect is used in descriptions: as, -
- erant omnīnō itinera duo . . . mōns altissimus impendēbat (B. G. i. 6), there were in all two ways . . . a very high mountain overhung.
- b. With iam dtū, iam dūdum, and other expressions of duration of time, the Imperfect denotes an action continuing in the past but begun at some previous time (cf. § 115. a. 2): as,—

iam dūdum flēbam (Ov. M. iii. 656), I had been weeping for a long time. copias quas diū comparabant (Fam. xi. 13. 5), the forces which they had long been getting ready.

Note. — In this construction the Imperfect is rendered by the English Pluperfect. Compare the Present in similar phrases (§ 276. a).

- c. The Imperfect sometimes denotes an action as begun (Inceptive Imperfect), or as attempted or only intended (Conative Imperfect) (cf. § 276. b): as,
  - in exsilium ēiciēbam quem iam ingressum esse in bellum vidēbam (Cat. ii. 14), was I sending (i.e. trying to send) into exile one who I saw had already gone into war?
  - hunc igitur diem sibi proponens Milo, cruentis manibus ad illa augusta centuriarum auspicia veniebat (Mil. 43), was Milo coming (i.e. was it likely that he would come), etc.?
  - iamque arva tenebant ūltima (Æn. vi. 477), and now they were just getting to the farthest fields.
- d. The Imperfect is sometimes used to express a surprise at the present discovery of a fact already existing: as,
  - Ō tū quoque aderās (Ter. Ph. 858), oh! you are here too.

- è. The Imperfect is often used in dialogue where we should expect the Perfect : as,
  - ad amīcum Calliclem quoi rem aībat mandāsse hīc suam (Plaut. Trin. 956), to his friend Callicles, to whom, he said, he had intrusted his property.

Note. — So also, in conversation, the imperfect of verbs of saying (cf. as I was a-saying): as, —

- at medicī quoque, ita enim dīcēbās, saepe falluntur (N. D. iii. 15), for that was what you were saying just now.
- f. For the Imperfect in apodosis contrary to fact, see § 308. b.
- g. The Imperfect with negative words often has the force of the English auxiliary could or would: as,
  - itaque (Dāmoclēs) nec pulchrōs illōs ministrātōrēs adspiciēbat (Tusc. v. 62), therefore he could not look upon those beautiful slaves. [In this case did not would not express the idea of continued prevention of enjoyment by the overhanging sword.]
  - nec enim dum eram vöbīscum animum meum vidēbātis (Cat. Maj. 79)

    for, you know, while I was with you, you could not see my soul. [Here
    the Perfect would refer only to one moment.]

#### 5. Future.

- **278.** The Future denotes an action or state that will occur hereafter.
- a. The Future sometimes has the force of an Imperative (see § 269. f).
- b. The Future is often required in a subordinate clause in Latin where in English futurity is sufficiently shown by the main clause: as.—

cum aderit vidēbit, when he is there he will see (cf. § 325. c). sānābimur sī volēmus (Tusc. iii. 13), we shall be healed if we wish.

## II. THE TENSES OF COMPLETED ACTION.

## 1. Perfect.

279. The Perfect denotes an action either as now completed (Perfect Definite), or as having taken place at some undefined point of past time (Historical or Aoristic Perfect). Thus,—

- (1) ut ego fēcī, quī Graecās litterās senex didicī (Cat. Maj. 26), as I have done, who have learned Greek in my old age.
- (2) tantum bellum extrēmā hieme apparāvit, ineunte vēre suscēpit, mediā aestāte confēcit (Man. 35), so great a war he made ready for at the end of winter, undertook in early spring, and finished by midsummer.
- NOTE. The distinction between these two uses of the perfect, though almost if not wholly lost to the minds of the Romans, must be noticed, on account of the marked distinction in English (see also  $\S$  115.  $\epsilon$ ).
- a. The perfect is sometimes used emphatically to denote that a thing or condition of things that once existed no longer exists: as,
  - fuit ista quondam in hac re publica virtus (Cat. i. 3), there was once such virtue in this commonwealth.
  - habuit, non habet (Tusc. i. 87), he had, he has no longer.
  - fuimus Troes, fuit Ilium (Æn. ii. 325), we have ceased to be Trojans, Troy is no more.
- b. The Indefinite Present, denoting a customary action or a general truth (§ 276), often has the Perfect in a subordinate clause referring to time antecedent to that of the main clause: as,
  - quī in compedibus corporis semper fuērunt, etiam cum solūtī sunt tardius ingrediuntur (Tusc. i. 75), they who have always been in the fetters of the body, even when released move more slowly.
- c. The perfect is sometimes used of a general truth, especially with negatives (Gnomic Perfect): as,
  - non aeris acervus et aurī dēdūxit corpore febrēs (Hor. Ep. i. 2. 47), the pile of brass and gold removes not fever from the frame.
- NOTE. The gnomic perfect strictly refers to past time; but its use implies that something which never did happen in any known case, never does happen, and never will (cf. the English "Faint heart never won fair lady"); or without a negative that what has once happened will atways happen under similar circumstances.
- d. The Perfect is often used in expressions containing or implying a negation, where in affirmation the Imperfect would be preferred: as,
  - dicēbat melius quam scripsit Hortēnsius (Or. 132), Hortensius spoke better than he wrote. [Here the negative is implied in the comparison.]
- e. The completed tenses of some verbs are equivalent to the incomplete tenses of verbs of kindred meaning.

Such are the preteritive verbs  $\overline{odi}$ , I hate; memini, I remember;  $n\overline{o}v\overline{i}$  I know;  $c\overline{o}nsu\overline{e}v\overline{i}$ , I am accustomed, with others sometimes used preteritively, as  $v\overline{e}nerat$  (= aderat, he was at hand, etc.) (see § 143. note). Thus, —

quī diēs aestūs māximōs efficere consuevit (B. G. iv. 29), which day generally makes the highest tides (is accustomed to make).

cũius splendor obsolēvit (Quinc. 68), whose splendor is now all faded (has become old).

REMARK. - Many other verbs are occasionally so used: as, -

dum oculos certamen averterat (Liv. xxxii. 24), while the contest had turned their eyes (kept them turned). [Here averterat = tenebat.]

## 2. Pluperfect.

- 280. The Pluperfect is used (1) to denote an action or state *completed* in past time; or (2) sometimes to denote an action in indefinite time, but prior to some past time referred to: as,—
- (1) locī nātūra erat haec, quem locum nostrī castrīs dēlēgerant (B. G. ii. 18), this was the nature of the ground our men had chosen for a camp. Viridovix summam imperī tenēbat eārum omnium cīvitātum quae dēfē-

viridovix summam imperi tenebat earum omnium civitatum quae detecerant (id. iii. 17), Viridovix held the chief command of all those tribes which had revolted.

(2) neque vērō cum aliquid mandāverat confectum putābat (Cat. iii. 16), but when he had given a thing in charge he did not look on it as done.

quae sī quandō adepta est id quod eī fuerat concupītum, tum fert alacritātem (Tusc. iv. 35), if it (desire) ever has gained what it had [previously] desired, then it produces joy.

#### 3. Future Perfect.

281. The Future Perfect denotes an action as completed in the future: as,—

ut sēmentem fēceris, ita metēs (De Or. ii. 261), as you sow (shall have sown), so shall you reap.

carmina tum melius cum vēnerit ipse canēmus (Ecl. ix. 67), then shall we sing our songs better, when he himself has come.

ego certē meum officium praestiterō (B. G. iv. 25), I at least shall have done my duty (i.e. when the time comes to reckon up the matter, I shall be found to have done it, whatever the event).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cf. dētestor, reminiscor, sciō, soleō.

REMARK.—The Future Perfect is used with much greater exactness in Latin than in English, and may even be used instead of the Future, from the fondness of the Latins for representing an action as completed: as,—

quid inventum sit paulō post vīderō (Acad. ii. 76), what has been found out I will see presently.

## III. EPISTOLARY TENSES.

**282.** In Letters, the Perfect Historical or the Imperfect may be used for the present, and the Pluperfect for any past tense, as if the letter were *dated* at the time it is supposed to be *received*: as,—

neque tamen, cum haec scribēbam, eram nescius quantīs oneribus premerēre (Fam. v. 12, 2), nor while I write this am I ignorant under what burdens you are weighed down.

# IV. TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

283. The tenses of the Subjunctive in Independent Clauses denote time in relation to the time of the speaker. The Present always refers to future (or indefinite) time, the Imperfect to either past or present, the Perfect to either future or past, the Pluperfect always to past.

284. In Dependent Clauses the tenses of the Subjunctive were habitually used in certain fixed connections determined by the time of the main verb and the time of the dependent verb together.

## Sequence of Tenses.

285. The tenses of the Subjunctive in Dependent clauses follow special rules for the SEQUENCE OF TENSES.

With reference to these rules all tenses when used in *Independent* clauses are divided into two classes, — *primary* and *secondary*.

1. PRIMARY. The primary tenses include all forms that express present or future time. These are the Present, Future, and Future Perfect Indicative, the Present and Perfect Subjunctive, and the Present and Future Imperative.

Note. — The Perfect Definite is sometimes treated as primary, but see § 287. a.

2. SECONDARY. The secondary tenses include all forms that refer to past time. These are the Imperfect, Perfect, and Pluperfect Indicative, the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive, and the Historical Infinitive.

Note. — To these may be added certain forms less commonly used in Independent Clauses. Such are (1) Primary: Present Infinitive in Exclamations; (2) Secondary: Perfect Infinitive in Exclamations (see § 287. a. note).

286. (Rule 62.) In complex sentences a Primary tense in the main clause is followed by the Present or Perfect in the dependent clause, and a Secondary tense by the Imperfect or Pluperfect: as,—

scrībit ut nōs moneat, he writes to warn us.
scrībet ut nōs moneat, he will write to warn us.
scrībe (scrībitō) ut nōs moneās, write that you may warn us.
scrīpsit ut nōs monēret, he wrote to warn us.
scrībit quasi oblītus sit, he writes as if he had forgotten.
scrīpsit quasi oblītus esset, he wrote as if he had forgotten.
rogō quid factūrus sīs I ask what you are going to do.

Note. — This rule affects only the tenses of the Subjunctive in dependent clauses. The tenses of the other moods and those of the Subjunctive in independent constructions (as in apodosis contrary to fact, § 308) are not affected by the sequence of tenses. (But cf. §§ 338. note 2, 339. note 2.)

REMARK. — In applying the rule for the sequence of tenses, observe (1) whether the main verb is (a) primary or (b) secondary, (2) whether the dependent verb is to denote completed action (i.e. past with reference to the main verb), or incomplete (i.e. present or future with reference to the main verb). Then —

(a) If the leading verb is *primary*, the dependent verb must be in the *Present* if it denotes *incomplete action*, in the *Perfect* if it denotes *completed action*.

(b) If the leading verb is secondary, the dependent verb must be in the Imperfect if it denotes incomplete action, in the Pluperfect if it denotes completed action. Thus,—

he writes (primary) to warn (incomplete) us, scrībit ut nos moneat.

I ask (primary) what you were doing (now past), rogō quid fēceris.

Notice that the *Future Perfect* denotes action completed (at the time referred to), and hence is represented in the Subjunctive by the Perfect or Pluperfect. Thus,—

I ask what you will have accomplished, rogō quid perfēceris. he asked what he would have accomplished, rogāvit quid perfēcisset.

- 287. In the Sequence of Tenses some special points are to be noted:—
- a. The Perfect Indicative is ordinarily a secondary tense, but allows the primary sequence when the present time is clearly in the writer's mind. Thus,
  - ut satis esset praesidī provisum est (Cat. ii. 26), provision has been made that there should be ample guard. [Secondary sequence.]
  - addūxī hominem in quō satisfacere exterīs nātiōnibus possētis (Verr. i. 2),

    I have brought a man in whose person you can make satisfaction to foreign nations. [Secondary sequence.]
  - ea adhibita doctrīna est quae vel vitiōsissimam nātūram excolere possit (Q. Fr. i. 1, 7), such instruction has been given as can train even the faultiest nature. [Primary sequence.]
- Note. The Perfect Infinitive in Exclamations follows the same rule: as,
  - adeon rem redisse patrem ut extimescam (Ter. Ph. 153), to think that things have come to such a pass that I should dread my father.
- b. After a primary tense the Perfect Subjunctive is regularly used to denote any past action, and may represent—
  - 1. A Perfect Definite: as, -
  - non dubito quin omnes tui scripserint (Fam. v. 8), I do not doubt that all your friends have written. [Direct statement: scripserunt.]
  - quare non ignoro quid accidat in ültimis terris, cum audierim in Italia querelas civium (Q. Fr. i. 1, 33), therefore I know well what happens at the ends of the earth, when I have heard in Italy the complaints of citizens. [In a direct statement, audīvī.]
  - 2. A Perfect Historical: as, -
  - më autem hic laudat quod retulerim, non quod patefecerim (Att. xii. 21), me he praises because I brought the matter [before the senate], not because I brought it to light. [Direct statement: retulit.]

3. An Imperfect: as, -

sī forte ceciderint tum intellegitur quam fuerint inopēs amīcorum (Læl. 53), if by chance they fall (have fallen), then one can see how poor they were in friends. [Direct question : quam inopes erant?]

quī status rērum fuerit cum hās litterās dedī scīre poteris ex C. Tidiō Strabone (Fam. xii. 6), what the state of affairs was when I wrote this letter, you can learn from Strabo. [Direct question: qui erat?]

NOTE. - Thus the Perfect Subjunctive may represent, not only a Perfect Definite or a Perfect Historical of a direct statement or question, but an Imperfect as well. This comes from the want of any special tense of the subjunctive to express continued action after a primary tense. Thus, miror quid fecerit may mean (1) I wonder what he has done, (2) I wonder what he did (hist. perf.), or (3) I wonder what he was doing.

c. In clauses of Result, the Perfect Subjunctive is very often (the Present rarely) used after secondary tenses: as, -

Hortensius ārdebat dīcendī cupiditāte sīc ut nūllo unquam flagrantius studium viderim (Brut. 302), Hortensius was so hot with desire of speaking that I have never seen a more burning ardor in any man.

Siciliam Verres per triennium ita vēxāvit āc perdidit, ut ea restituī in antīcum statum nūllō modō possit (Verr. i. 12), for three years Verres so racked and ruined Sicily, that she can in no way be restored to her former state. [Here the Present describes a state of things actually existing.]

REMARK. - This construction emphasizes the result; the regular construction subordinates it.

NOTE. — There is a special fondness for the Perfect Subjunctive to represent a Perfect Indicative. Thus, -

Thorius erat ita non superstitiosus ut illa plūrima in sua patria et sacrificia et fana contemneret; ita non timidus ad mortem ut in acië sit ob rem publicam interfectus (Fin. ii. 63), Thorius was so little superstitious that he despised [contemnebat] the many sacrifices and shrines in his country; so little timorous about death that he was killed [interfectus est] in battle, in defence of the State.

Zēnō nūllō modō is erat qui nervōs virtūtis incīderet (cf. § 279. d); sed contrā quī omnia in ūnā virtūte poneret (Acad. i. 35), Zeno was by no means one to cut the sinews of virtue; but one, on the contrary, who made everything depend on virtue alone. [incidit . . . ponebat.]

d. A general truth after a past tense follows the sequence of tenses: as. -

- ex hīs quae tribuisset sibi quam mūtābilis esset reputābat (Q. C. iii. 8, 20), from what she (Fortune) had bestowed on him, he reflected how inconstant she is. [Direct: mūtābilis est.]
- ibi quantam vim ad stimulandos animos īra habēret appāruit (Liv. xxxiii. 37), here it appeared what power anger has to goad the mind. [Direct: habet.]

NOTE. - In English the original tense is more commonly kept.

- e. The Historical Present (§ 276. d) is sometimes felt as a primary, sometimes as a secondary tense. Accordingly it is followed by either the primary or the secondary sequence, more commonly by the secondary. Thus,
  - rogat ut curet quod dixisset (Quinct. 18), he asks him to attend to the thing he had spoken of.
  - castella communit quo facilius prohibere posset (B. G. i. 8), he strengthens the forts that he might more easily keep them off.
- Note. After the historical present, cum temporal with the subjunctive must follow the secondary sequence.
- f. The Imperfect and Pluperfect in conditions contrary to fact (§ 308) are not affected by the sequence of tenses: as,
  - quia tale sit, ut vel sī īgnorarent homines, etc. (Fin. ii. 49), because it is such that even if men WERE ignorant, etc.
- g. The Imperfect Subjunctive in present conditions contrary to fact (§ 308) is regularly followed by the secondary sequence: as,
  - sī aliī consulēs essent, ad tē potissimum, Paulle, mītterem, ut eos mihi quam amīcissimos redderēs (Fam. xv. 13), if there were other consuls, I should send to you, Paulus, in preference to all, that you might make them as friendly to me as possible.
  - sī eōs dīcerēs miserōs quibus moriendum esset, nēminem exciperēs (Tusc. i. 9), if you called those wretched who must die, you would except no one.
- h. The Present is sometimes followed by a secondary sequence, seemingly because the writer is thinking of past time (Synesis): as,
  - sed tamen ut scīrēs haec tibi scrībō (Fam. xiii. 47), but yet that you may know, I write thus. [As if he had used the common epistolary imperfect scrībēbam (§ 282).]
  - cūius praeceptī tanta vīs est ut ea non hominī cuipiam sed Delphico deo tribuerētur (Leg. i. 58), such is the force of this precept, that it was ascribed not to any man, but to the Delphic god. [The precept was an old one.]

Note. — The rules for the sequence of tenses must not be regarded as inflexible. They were often disregarded by the Romans themselves, either from carelessness or purposely for one reason or another.

i. When a clause depends upon one already dependent, the sequence becomes secondary as soon as the time is thrown back into the past by any form that represents past time: as,—

tantum pröfēcisse vidēmur ut ā Graecīs nē verbörum quidem copiā vincerēmur (N. D. i. 8), we seem to have advanced so far that even in fulness of words we ARE not surpassed by the Greeks.

But — beātē vīxisse videor quia cum Scīpione vīxerim (Læl. 15), I seem to have lived happily in that I have lived with Scipio (who had just died).

Note. — For the application of this rule to Indirect Discourse, see § 336. B. note.

## V. TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE.

288. (Rule 63.) The Tenses of the Infinitive denote present, past, or future time, relatively to the time of the verb on which they depend: as,—

nostros non esse înferiores intellexit (B. G. ii. 8), he ascertained that our men were not inferior. [Direct: sunt.]

quam Iūnō fertur terrīs magis omnibus coluisse (Æn. i. 15), which Juno is said to have cherished above all lands. [Direct: colēbat.]

spērant sē māximum frūctum esse captūrōs (Læl. 79), they hope they shall receive the greatest advantage. [Direct: capiēmus.]

a. With past tenses of verbs of necessity, propriety, and possibility (as potui, dēbui, and oportuit) the Present infinitive must be rendered by the Perfect infinitive in English: as,—

scire potuit (Milo, 46), he might have known.

quī vidēbātur omnīnō morī nōn dēbuisse (Arch. 17), who seemed [one that] ought not to have died at all.

- b. For the tenses of the infinitive in Indirect Discourse, see § 336. A.
- c. Except in indirect discourse, the Present is the only tense of the infinitive in common use. It has no distinct reference to time. Thus,—

est adulēscentis māiōrēs nātū verērī (Off. i. 122), it is [the duty] of a youth to reverence his elders.

d. With verbs of wishing, necessity, and the like, the Perfect Passive infinitive is often used instead of the Present: as,—

quod iam pridem factum esse oportuit (Cat. i. 5), which ought to have been done long ago (cf. a, above).

REMARK. — In early and late Latin, and in poetry, rarely in good prose, the Perfect Active infinitive is also used instead of the Present, and even with other verbs than those of wishing and the like: as, —

commississe cavet (Hor. A. P. 168), he is cautious of doing.

c. With verbs of *feeling* the Perfect infinitive is used, especially by the poets, to denote a completed action.

So also with satis est, satis habeo, melius est, contentus sum, and in a few other cases where the distinction of time is important. Thus, —

pudet mē non praestitisse (Fam. xiv. 3), I am ashamed not to have shown. sunt quōs curriculo pulverem Olympicum collegisse iuvat (Hor. Od. i.

1. 3), there are those who delight, etc.

quiësse erit melius (Liv. iii. 48), it will be better to have kept quiet.

f. The Future infinitive is often expressed by fore (or futurum esse) ut with the subjunctive; so necessarily in verbs which have no supine stem (cf. §§ 302. Rem., 332. e). Thus,—

spērō fore ut contingat id nōbīs (Tusc. i. 82), I hope that will be our happy lot.

### II. NOUN AND ADJECTIVE FORMS.

The several Noun and Adjective forms associated with the verb are employed as follows:—

<sup>1</sup> Chiefly volo, nolo, malo, oportet, decet.

- 2. GERUND OF GERUNDIVE:
- 1. Genitive as Objective Genitive (§ 298).
- 2. Dative, with Adjectives, Nouns, Verbs (§ 299).
- 3. Accusative, with certain Prepositions (§ 300).
- 4. Ablative, of Means, Comparison, or with Prepositions (§ 301.)
- 3. SUPINE:
- 1. Former Supine (in -um), with Verbs of Motion (§ 302).
  2. Latter Supine (in -ū), chiefly with Adjectives (§ 303).

### PARTICIPLES.

**289.** The Participle expresses the action of the verb in the form of an Adjective; but has a partial distinction of tense, and may govern a case.

NOTE. — Thus the participle combines all the functions of an adjective with some of the functions of a verb. As an adjective, it limits substantives, and agrees with them in gender, number, and case (§ 186). As a verb, it has distinctions of time (§ 290), and often takes an object.

### 1. Distinctions of Tense.

290. (RULE 64.) Participles denote time as *present*, past, or future with respect to the time of the verb in their clause.

Thus the Present Participle represents the action as in progress at the time indicated by the tense of the verb, the Perfect as completed, and the Future as still to take place.

- a. The Present Participle has several of the special uses of the
   Present Indicative. Thus it may denote —
- 1. An action continued in the present but begun in the past (§ 276. a): as,—

quaerenti mihi iamdiü certa res nülla veniebat in mentem (Fam. iv. 13), though I had long sought, no certain thing came to my mind.

- 2. Attempted action (§ 276. b): as, —
- C. Flaminiō restitit agrum Picentem dividenti (Cat. Maj. 11), he resisted Flaminius when attempting to divide the Picene territory.
- 3. Futurity (§ 276. c): as, -

iens in Pompēianum bene māne haec scrīpsī (Att. iv. 9), I write this when about going very early to my place at Pompeii.

- b. The Perfect Participle of a few deponent verbs is used nearly in the sense of a Present.
- So, regularly, ratus, solitus, veritus; commonly, fisus, ausus, secutus, and occasionally others, especially in later writers. Thus, —

cohortătus mīlitēs docuit (B. C. iii. 80), encouraging the men, he showed. īrātus dīxistī (Mur. 62), you spoke in a passion.

oblītus auspiciōrum (Phil. i. 31), forgetting the auspices.

īnsidiās veritus (B. G. ii. 11), fearing ambuscade.

- c. The Latin has no Present Participle in the passive. The place of such a form is supplied usually by a clause with dum or cum, rarely by the participle in -dus: as,
  - nūllīs ēvidentibus causīs obiēre dum calceantur mātūtīnō duo Caesarēs (Plin. N. H. vii. 181), from no obvious cause two Cæsars died while having their shoes put on in the morning.
  - meque ista delectant cum Latine dicuntur (Acad. i. 13), those things please me when they are spoken in Latin.
  - crucibus adfīxī aut flammandī (Tac. Ann. xv. 44), crucified or set on fire (in flames).
- Note. The constructions with dum and cum are often used when a participle might be employed: as,
  - dīc, hospes, Spartae, nōs tē hīc vīdisse iacentēs, dum sanctīs patriae lēgibus obsequimur, tell it, stranger, at Sparta, that you saw us lying here obedient to our country's sacred laws. [Here dum obsequimur is a translation of the Greek present participle πειθθμενοι.]
- d. The Latin has no Perfect Participle in the active voice. The deficiency is supplied —
- In deponents by the perfect passive form with its regular active meaning: as,
  - nam sīngulās [nāvēs] nostrī consectātī expūgnāvērunt (B. G. iii. 15), for our men having overtaken them one by one, captured them by boarding.
- 2. In other verbs, by the ablative absolute with a change of voice (§ 255. d. note) or by a clause (especially with cum or dum): as,
  - itaque convocătis centurionibus milites certiores facit (B. G. iii. 5), and so, having called the centurions together, he informs the soldiers (the centurions having been called together).
  - cum vēnisset animadvertit collem (id. vii. 44), having come (when he had come), he noticed a hill.
- Note. The perfect participle of several deponent verbs may be either active or passive in meaning ( $\S$  135.  $\delta$ ).

## 2. Adjective Use.

291. The Present and Perfect participles are used sometimes as attributive, nearly like adjectives: as,—

cum antiquissimam sententiam tum comprobatam (Div. i. 11), a view at once most ancient and well approved.

sīgna nunquam ferē ēmentientia (id. 15), signs hardly ever deceitful. auspiciīs ūtuntur coāctīs (id. 27), they use forced auspices.

a. Participles often become complete adjectives, and may be compared or used as nouns. Thus, —

quo mulieri esset res cautior (Cæcin. 11), that the matter might be more secure for the woman.

in illīs artibus praestantissimus (De Or. i. 217), preëminent in those arts. sibi indulgentēs et corporī dēservientēs (Leg. i. 39), the self-indulgent, and slaves to the body (indulging themselves and serving the body).

male parta male dīlābuntur (Phil. ii. 65), ill-got, ill-spent (things ill-acquired, etc.).

consuetudo valentis (De Or. ii. 186), the habit of a man in health.

b. Participles are often used as Predicate Adjectives. As such they may be joined to the subject by esse or a copulative verb (see §§ 186. b; 176. a): as,—

Gallia est divisa (B. G. i. 1), Gaul is divided. locus qui nunc saeptus est (Liv. i. 8), the place which is now enclosed.

REMARK. — From this predicate use arise the compound tenses of the passive, — the participle of *completed action* with the incomplete tenses of esse developing the idea of past time: as interfectus est, he was (or has been) killed, lit. he is having-been-killed (i.e. already slain).

In the best writers (as Cicero), the perfect participle, when used with fui, etc., retains its proper force; but in later writers the two sets of tenses (as amātus sum or fui), are often used indiscriminately to form the tenses of the perfect system in the passive: as,—

arma quae fixa in parietibus fuerant, humī inventa sunt (Div. i. 74), the arms which had been fastened on the walls were found upon the ground. [Cf. occupātī sunt et fuērunt (Off. i. 57), are and have been engaged. The difference between this and arma quae, etc., is, that occupātus in this sense is used only as an adjective.]

## 3. Predicate Use.

292. The Present and Perfect participles are often used as a predicate, where in English a phrase or clause would be usual.

In this use the participles express time, cause, occasion, condition, concession, characteristic (or description), manner, means, attendant circumstances. Thus,—

- volventës hostilia cadavera amicum reperiëbant (Sall. Cat. 61), while rolling over the corpses of the enemy they found a friend. [Time.]
- paululum commorātus, sīgna canere iubet (Sall. Cat. 59, 1), after delaying a little while, he orders to give the signal. [Time.]
- longius prosequi veritus, ad Ciceronem pervenit (B. G. v. 52), because he feared to follow further, he came to Cicero. [Cause.]
- quī scīret laxās dare iūssus habēnās (Æn. i. 63), who might know how to give them loose rein when bidden. [Occasion.]
- damnātum poenam sequī oportēbat (B. G. i. 4), if condemned, punishment must overtake him. [Condition.]
- salūtem īnspērantibus reddidistī (Marc. 21), you have restored a safety which we did not hope. [Concession.]
- Dardanius caput ecce puer dētēctus (Æn. x. 133), the Trojan boy with his head uncovered. [Description.]
- nec trepides in usum poscentis aevi pauca (Hor. Od. ii. 11. 5), be not anxious for the needs of age that demands little. [Characteristic.]
- incitati fuga montes altissimos petebant (B. C. iii. 93), in headlong flight they made for the highest mountains. [Manner.]
- mīlitēs sublevātī aliī ab aliīs māgnam partem itineris conficerent (B. C. i. 68), the soldiers helped up by each other, etc. [Means.]
- hoc laudans, Pompēius idem iūrāvit (B. C. iii. 87), approving this, Pompey took the same oath. [Attendant circumstance.]
- aut sedens aut ambulans disputabam (Tusc. i. 7), I conducted the discussion either sitting or walking. [Circumstance.]

REMARK. — These uses are especially frequent in the ablative absolute (§ 255. d). A co-ordinate clause is sometimes compressed into a perfect participle: as,—

- înstructos ordines in locum aecum deducit (Sall. Cat. 59), he draws up the lines, and leads them to level ground.
- ut hos transductos necaret (B. G. v. 6), that he might carry them over and put them to death.

Note. 1.— A participle with a negative often expresses the same idea which in English is given by without and a verbal noun: as,—

miserum est nihil proficientem angī (N. D. iii. 14), it is wretched to vex oneself without effecting anything.

Note 2. — Acceptum and expēnsum as predicates with ferre and referre are book-keeping terms: as, —

quas pecunias ferebat eis expensas (Verr. ii. 170), what sums he charged to them.

a. A noun and a passive participle are often so united that the participle and not the noun contains the main idea: 1 as, —

ante conditam condendamve urbem (Liv. Pref.), before the city was built or building.

illī lībertātem cīvium Rōmānōrum imminūtam nōn tulērunt; vōs vītam ēreptam neglegētis (Manil. 11), they did not endure the infringement of the citizens' liberty; will you disregard the destruction of their life? post hominēs nātōs (Brut. 224), since the creation of man.

iam a condita urbe (Phil. iii. 9), even from the founding of the city.

b. The perfect participle with a noun in agreement, or in the neuter as an abstract noun, is used in the ablative with opus, need (cf. § 243. e): as,—

opus facto est viatico (Pl. Trin. 887), there is need of laying in provision. maturato opus est (Liv. viii. 13), there is need of haste.

c. The perfect participle with habeo (rarely with other verbs) has almost the same meaning as a perfect active, but denotes the continued effect of the action of the verb: 2 as, —

fidem quam habent spectātam iam et diū cōgnitam (Div. C. 11), my fidelity, which they have proved and long known.

cohortes in acie lxxx. constitutas habebat (B. C. iii. 89), he had eighty cohorts stationed in line of battle.

nefāriōs ducēs captōs iam et comprehēnsōs tenētis (Cat. iii. 16), you have captured and hold in custody the infamous leaders, etc.

d. A verb of effecting or the like may be used in combination with the perfect participle of a transitive verb to express the action of that verb more forcibly: as,—

<sup>1</sup> Compare the participle in indirect discourse in Greek (Goodwin's Greek Grammar, § 1588); and the English, "'T was at the Royal feast for Persia won" (Dryden), i.e. for the conquest of Persia.

<sup>2</sup> The perfect with have, in modern languages of Latin stock, has grown out of this use of habeo.

praefectös suös multī mīssos fēcērunt (Verr. iii. 134), many discharged their officers (made dismissed).

hīc trānsāctum reddet omne (Plaut. Capt. 345), he will get it all done (restore it finished).

Note. — Similarly volo (with its compounds) and cupio, with a perfect participle without esse (cf. § 288. d. note): as,—

mē excūsātum volō (Verr. II. i. 103), I wish to be excused (I want myself excused, cf. I pray thee have me excused).

e. With verbs denoting an action of the senses the present participle in agreement with the object is nearly equivalent to the infinitive of indirect discourse (§ 336), but expresses the action more vividly: as,—

ut eum nēmō unquam in equō sedentem vīderit (Verr. v. 27), so that no one ever saw him sitting on a horse.

## 4. Future Participle.

- 293. The Future Participle (except futures and ventures) is rarely used in simple agreement with a noun, except by later writers.
- a. The future participle is chiefly used with the verb esse (which is often omitted) in the active periphrastic conjugation (§ 129): as,—

morere, Diagorā, non enim in caelum adscēnsūrus es (Tusc. i. 111), die, for you are not likely to rise to heaven.

- spērat adolēscēns diū sē vīctūrum (Cat. Maj. 68), the young man hopes to live long (that he shall live long).
- b. By later writers and the poets the future participle is also used in simple agreement with a substantive to express:—
  - 1. Likelihood or certainty: as, -

ausus est rem plūs fāmae habitūram (Liv. ii. 10), he dared a thing which would have more repute.

2. Purpose, intention, or readiness: as, -

cum leo regem invasurus incurreret (Q. C. viii. 1, 14), when a lion rushed on to attack the king.

si periturus abis (An. ii. 675), if you are going away to perish.

3. Apodosis: as, -

dedit mihi quantum māximum potuit, datūrus amplius sī potuisset (Plin. Ep. iii. 21), he gave me as much as he could, ready to give me more if he had been able.

c. With past tenses of esse, the future participle is often equivalent to the pluperfect subjunctive (see § 308. d).

# 5. Gerundive (Future Passive Participle).

Note.— The participle in -dus, commonly called the Gerundive, has two distinct uses: —

- (1) Its predicate and attribute use as participle or adjective (§ 294).
- (2) Its use with the meaning of the gerund (§ 296). This may be called its gerundive use.
- 294. The Gerundive when used as a Participle or an Adjective is always passive, denoting necessity or propriety.

  In this use the following points are to be observed (a-d).
- a. The gerundive is sometimes used, like the present and perfect participles, in simple agreement with a noun: as,—

fortem et conservandum virum (Mil. 104), a brave man, and worthy to be preserved.

b. The most frequent use of this form is with esse in the second (passive) periphrastic conjugation (see § 129): as,—

non agitanda res erit (Verr. v. 179), will not the thing have to be agitated?

c. The neuter of the gerundive is occasionally used impersonally with an object. The object is in the case regularly governed by the verb. Thus,—

via quam nobīs ingrediendum sit (Cat. Maj. 6), the way we have to enter.

Note. — This use is regular with verbs which take their object in the dative or ablative: as, —

lēgibus pārendum est, the laws must be obeyed.

d. With verbs signifying to give, deliver, agree for, have, receive, undertake, demand, a gerundive in agreement with the object is used to express purpose: as,—

redemptor quī columnam illam condūxerat faciendam (Div. ii. 47), the contractor who had undertaken to make that column. [The regular construction with this class of verbs.]

aedem Castoris habuit tuendam (Verr. II. i, 132), he had the temple of Castor to take care of.

nāvēs atque onera dīligenter adservanda cūrābat (id. v. 146), he took care that the ships and cargoes should be kept.

### GERUND AND GERUNDIVE.

295. The Gerund expresses an action of the verb in the form of a verbal noun. As a noun the gerund is itself governed by other words; as a verb it may take an object in the proper case. Thus, -

ars bene disserendi et vera ac falsa diiūdicandi (De Or. ii. 157), the art of discoursing well, and distinguishing the true and false.

REMARK. — A nominative of the gerund is supplied by the infinitive. Thus in the example above, the verbal nouns discoursing and distinguishing if used in the nominative, would be expressed by the infinitives disserere and dîiûdicāre.

296. When the Gerund would have an object in the accusative, the Gerundive is generally used instead. The gerundive agrees with its noun, and takes the case which the gerund would have had: as. —

parātiores ad omnia pericula subeunda (B. G. i. 5), readier to undergo all dangers. [Here subeunda agrees with pericula, which is itself governed by ad. The construction with the gerund would be, ad subeundum pericula; ad governing the gerund, and the gerund governing the accusative pericula.]

exercendae memoriae grātiā (Cat. Maj. 38), for the sake of training the [Here the gerund construction would be memoriam exermemory.

cendī grātiā.]

plērīsque in rebus gerendīs tarditās odiosa est (Phil. vi. 7), in the conducting of most business, sloth is odious.

The following examples illustrate the parallel constructions of gerund and gerundive : -

GEN. consilium { urbem capiendi } a design of taking the city.

DAT. dat operam { agrös colendo } he attends to tilling the fields.

Acc. veniunt ad { mihi pārendum pācem petendam } they come { to obey me. to seek peace.

ABL. terit tempus { scrībendō epistulās } he spends time in writing letters.

REMARK. — In the gerundive construction the verbs ūtor, fruor, etc., are treated like transitive verbs governing the accusative, as they do in early Latin: as, —

expetuntur dīvitiae ad perfruendās voluptātēs (Off. i. 25), riches are sought for the enjoyment of pleasures (for enjoying pleasures).

297. (RULE 65.) The Gerund and the Gerundive are used, in the oblique cases, in many of the constructions of nouns.

### z. Genitive.

298. The Genitive of the Gerund and Gerundive is used with nouns or adjectives either as subjective or objective genitive: as,—

neque consilir habendi neque arma capiendi spatio dato (B. G. iv. 14), time being given neither for forming plans nor for taking arms. [Objective.]

nē conservandae quidem patriae causā (Off. i. 159), not even for the sake of saving the country. [Originally subjective genitive.]

vivendi finis est optimus (Cat. Maj. 72), it is the best end of living. [Subjective.]

NOTE. — In a few phrases the Infinitive is used with nouns which ordinarily have the genitive of the Gerund or Gerundive. Thus tempus est abire, it is time to depart.

REMARK. — The genitive of the gerund or gerundive is used (especially in early and late Latin) as a predicate genitive. When so used it often expresses purpose: as,—

quae res evertendae respublicae solent esse (Verr. iii. 132), things which generally tend to the overthrow of the commonwealth.

- sī arborum truncī dēiciendī operis essent mīssae (B. G. iv. 17), in case trunks of trees should be sent down [with the object] of overthrowing the work. [Pred. gen. like quās suī commodī fēcerat (v. 8).]
- a. The genitive of the Gerund is occasionally limited by a noun or pronoun (especially sui) in the objective genitive instead of taking a direct object: as,—

ēius videndī cupidus (Ter. Hec. 372), eager to see her (for a seeing of her). rēiciendī trium iūdicum potestās (Verr. ii. 77), the power of challenging three jurors (of the rejecting of three jurors).

suī colligendī facultās (B. G. iii. 6), the opportunity to recover themselves.

- b. In genitive constructions the Gerund and Gerundive are about equally common.
- c. The genitive of the Gerund or Gerundive is used with causa or gratia to denote purpose (see § 318).

Note. — This is merely a special use under the main head of § 298.

### 2. Dative.

299. The Dative of the Gerund and Gerundive is used after adjectives which take the dative and rarely after nouns (§ 234. a): as,—

genus armorum aptum tegendis corporibus (Liv. xxxii. 10), a sort of armor suited to the defence of the body.

- të sociam studeō scrībendīs versibus esse (Lucr. i. 25), I desire that thou be my partner in writing verses.
- a. The dative is used in ā few expressions after verbs: 2 as, diem praestitit operī faciendō (Verr. II. i, 148), he set a day for doing the work. praeesse agrō colendō (Rosc. Am. 50), to take charge of cultivating the land. esse solvendō, to be able to pay (to be for paying).

Note. — This construction is a remnant of a more general use of the dative of the gerund and gerundive.

b. The dative is also used in certain legal phrases after nouns meaning officers, offices, elections, etc., to indicate the function or scope of the office, etc.: as,—

comitia consulibus rogandīs (Div. i. 33), elections for nominating consuls. triumvir coloniis deducundīs (Jug. 42), a triumvir for planting colonies. triumvirī respublicae constituendae (title of the Triumvirate), triumvirs (a commission of three) for settling the government.

## 3. Accusative.

**300.** The Accusative of the Gerund and Gerundive is used after the prepositions ad, inter, circa, ob (and rarely in and ante); most frequently after ad, denoting Purpose (cf. § 318. b): as,—

<sup>1</sup> The dative of the gerund and gerundive occurs most commonly after the adjectives accommodatus, aptus, ineptus, bonus, habilis, idōneus, par, ütilis, inūtilis. But the accusative with ad is common with most of these (cf.  $\S$  234.  $\delta$ ).

<sup>2</sup> Such are praeesse, operam dare, diem dicere, locum capere.

mē vocās ad scribendum (Or. 34), you summon me to write.

vivis non ad deponendam sed ad confirmandam audaciam (Cat. i. 4), you live, not to put off, but to confirm your daring.

nactus aditūs ad ea conanda (B. C. i. 31), having found means to undertake these things.

inter agendum (Ecl. ix. 24), while driving.

Note. — The Accusative of the gerund with a preposition rarely takes a direct object, the Ablative of the gerund very rarely. The Gerundive is used instead (§ 296).

### 4. Ablative.

- 301. The Ablative of the Gerund and Gerundive is used (I) to express Manner, Means, Cause, etc.; (2) after Comparatives; (3) after the prepositions ab, dē, ēx, in, and (rarely) prō and cum: as,—
  - (1) multa pollicendo persuadet (Jug. 46), he persuades by large promises. Latīnē loquendo cuivīs pār (Brut. 128), equal to any man in speaking Latin. nūllīs virtūtis praeceptīs trādendīs (Off. i. 5), without delivering any precepts of virtue (by delivering no precepts).

hīs ipsīs legendīs (Cat. Maj. 21), by reading these very things.

- obscuram atque humilem conciendo ad sē multitudinem (Liv. i. 8), calling to them a mean and obscure multitude.
- (2) nullum officium referenda gratia magis necessarium est (Off. i. 47), no duty is more important than repaying favors.
- (3) in rē gerendā versārī (Cat. Maj. 17), to be employed in conducting affairs.

Note. — The Ablative of the Gerund and Gerundive is also very rarely used depending on verbs and adjectives: as, —

Appius non abstitit continuando magistratum (Liv. ix. 34), Appius did not desist from continuing his magistracy.

REMARK. — The Gerund is often found co-ordinated with nominal constructions, and sometimes even in apposition with a noun: as, —

- (1) in forō, in cūriā, in amīcōrum perīculīs pulsandīs (Phil. vii. 7), in the forum, in the Senate-house, in defending my friends in jeopardy.
- (2) ad rēs dīversissimās, pārendum atque imperandum (Liv. xxi. 3), for the most widely different things, obeying and commanding.

#### III. SUPINE.

Note. — The Supine is a verbal abstract of the fourth declension (§ 71. a), having no distinction of tense or person, and limited to two uses.

- **302.** (Rule 66.) The Former Supine (in -um) is used after verbs of *motion* to express purpose. It may take an object in the proper case. Thus,
  - quid est, îmusne sēssum? etsī monitum vēnimus tē, non flāgitātum (De Or. iii. 17), how now, shall we be seated? though we have come to remind, not to entreat you.

vēnērunt questum iniūriās (Liv. iii. 25), they came to complain of wrongs.

REMARK. — The supine in -um is especially common with eō; and with the passive infinitive īrī forms the future infinitive passive. Thus, —

fuere cives qui rempublicam perditum irent (Sall. Cat. 36), there were citizens who went about to ruin the republic (cf. § 258. b. Rem.).

non Grais servitum matribus ibo (Æn. ii. 786), I shall not go to be a slave to the Grecian dames.

sī scīsset sē trucīdātum īrī (Div. ii. 22), if he (Pompey) had known that he was going to be murdered. [cf. § 288. f.]

303. (Rule 67.) The Latter Supine (in  $-\bar{u}$ ) is used only with a few adjectives, with the nouns fas, nefas, and opus, and rarely with verbs, to denote an action in reference to which the quality is asserted: as,—

O rem non modo vīsū foedam, sed etiam audītū (Phil. ii. 63), a thing not only shocking to see, but even to hear of.

quaerunt quid optimum factū sit (Verr. II.i, 68), they ask what is best to do. pudet dictū (Agric. 32), it is shame to tell.

Note. — The latter supine is thus in appearance an ablative of specification (§ 253), but see § 71. a.

Remark. — The supine in -ū is found especially with such adjectives as indicate an effect on the senses or the feelings, and those which denote ease, difficulty, and the like. But with facilis, difficilis, iūcundus, ad with the gerund is more common. Thus, —

nec vīsū facilis nec dictū adfābilis ūllī (Æn. iii. 621), he is not pleasant for any man to look at or address.

difficilis ad distinguendum similitūdo (De Or. ii. 212), a likeness difficult to distinguish.

With all these adjectives the poets often use the Infinitive in the same sense: as, —

faciles aurem praebere (Prop.), indulgent to lend an ear.

¹ The only latter supines in common use are audītū, dictū, factū, inventū, memorātū, nātū, vīsū. In classic use this supine is found, in all, in twenty-four verbs. It is never followed by an object-case.

## CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.

Note. - The Conditional Sentence differs from other compound sentences in this, that the form of the main clause (APODOSIS) is determined in some degree by the nature of the subordinate clause (PROTASIS), upon the truth of which the whole statement depends.

Conditional Sentences may be classified as follows: -

- I. SIMPLE PRESENT OR PAST CONDITIONS, nothing implied as to fulfilment (§ 306).
- 2. FUTURE CONDITIONS:
- 3. CONDITIONS CONTRARY TO FACT:
- 4. GENERAL CONDITIONS:
- (a. More vivid (§ 307). Ful and, in
  - b. Less vivid (§ 307).
- ( a. Present (§ 308). 2001.
  - b. Past (§ 308). Colups.
- (a. Indefinite Subject (§ 309. a).
- b. Repeated Action (§ 309. b, c).
- a. Protasis
- 1. in clause of Fact, Wish, Command (§ 310. b, c).
- Disguised: 2. in Participial Expression (§ 310. a).
- 5. IMPLIED CONDITIONS:
  - b. Protasis Omitted:
- I. Potential Subjunctive (§ 311. a).
- 2. Subjunctive of Modesty (§ 311. b).

# I. Protasis and Apodosis.

304. A complete conditional sentence consists of two clauses, the Protasis and the Apodosis,

The clause containing the condition is called the PROTAsis; the clause containing the conclusion is called the Apodosis: as, —

- sī quī exīre volunt [PROTASIS], conīvēre possum [APODOSIS] (Cat. ii. 27), if any wish to depart, I can keep my eyes shut.
- sī est in exsiliō [PROTASIS], quid amplius postulātis [APODOSIS] (Lig. 13), if he is in exile, what more do you ask?
- NOTE. It should be carefully noted that the Protasis is the dependent clause.
- a. The Protasis is regularly introduced by the conditional particle sī (1F) or one of its compounds: sīn, nisi, etiamsī, etsī, tametsī,

tamenetsi. Any relative or concessive word, may also serve to introduce a protasis.

b. The Apodosis is often introduced by some correlative word or phrase: as, sīc, ita, tum, eā condicione, etc. Thus,—

ita enim senectūs honesta est, sī sē ipsa dēfendit (Cat. Maj. 38), on this condition is old age honorable, if it defends itself.

sī quidem mē amāret tum istūc prodesset (Ter. Eun. 446), if he loved me, then this would be profitable.

c. The Apodosis is the principal clause of the conditional sentence, but may at the same time be subordinate to some other clause, and so be in the form of a Participle, an Infinitive, or a Phrase: as,—

sepultūrā quoque prohibitūrī nī rēx humārī iūssisset (Q. C. viii. 2, 12), intending also to deprive him of burial, unless the king had ordered him to be interred.

quod sī praetereā nēmō sequātur, tamen sē cum sōlā decimā legiōne itūrum [esse] (B. G. i. 40), but if no one else would follow, he would go with the tenth legion alone.

sī quōs adversum proelium commoveret, hos reperire posse (id.), if the loss of a battle alarmed any, they might find, etc.

NOTE. — When the Apodosis itself is in Indirect Discourse, or in any dependent construction, the verb of the Protasis is regularly in the Subjunctive (as in the first two of the above examples, see § 337).

d. Conditions are either (1) Particular or (2) General.

1. A Particular Condition refers to a definite act or series of acts occurring at some definite time.

2. A General Condition refers to any one of a class of acts which may occur (or may have occurred) at any time.

# 2. Classification.

- **305.** The principal or typical Forms of conditional sentences may be exhibited as follows:
  - a. SIMPLE CONDITIONS, with nothing implied as to fulfilment.
  - 1. Present, nothing implied. Present Indicative in both clauses. sī adest, bene est, if he is [now] here, it is well.
  - 1 Cf. the Greek forms: a. 1. εί πράσσει τοῦτο, καλῶς ἔχει.
    - 2. εί ἔπρασσε τοῦτο, καλῶς είχεν. εί ἔπραξε τοῦτο, καλῶς ἔσχεν.
    - δ. 1. ἐὰν πράσση τοῦτο, καλῶς ἔξει.
       2. εἰ πράσσοι τοῦτο, καλῶς ἄν ἔχοι.
    - c. Ι. εἰ ἔπρασσε τοῦτο, καλῶς ἀν εἶχεν.
       2. εἰ ἔπραξε τοῦτο, καλῶς ἀν ἔσχεν.
       d. Ι. ἐάν τις κλέπτη, κολάζεται.
       2. εἴ τις κλέπτοι, ἐκολάζετο.

- 2. Past, nothing implied. Some past tense of the Indicative in both clauses.
  - sī aderat, bene erat, if he was [then] here, it was well. sī adfuit, bene fuit, if he has been here, it has been well.

  - b. FUTURE CONDITIONS (necessarily as yet unfulfilled).
  - 1. More vivid.
  - (a) Future Indicative in both clauses.
  - sī aderit, bene erit, if he is (shall be) here, it will be well.
- (B) Future Perfect Indicative in protasis, Future Indicative in apodosis (condition thought of as completed before conclusion begins).
  - sī adfuerit, bene erit, if he is (shall have been) here, it will [then] be well.
  - 2. Less vivid.
  - (a) Present Subjunctive in both clauses.
  - sī adsit, bene sit, if he should be here it would be well.
- (B) Perfect Subjunctive in protasis, Present Subjunctive in apodosis (condition thought of as completed before conclusion begins).
  - sī adfuerit, bene sit, if he should be (should have been) here, it would [then] be well.
  - c. CONDITIONS CONTRARY TO FACT.
  - I. Present contrary to fact. Imperfect Subjunctive in both clauses.
  - sī adesset, bene esset, if he were [now] here, it would be well (but he is NOT here).
  - 2. Past, contrary to fact. Pluperfect Subjunctive in both clauses.
  - sī adfuisset, bene fuisset, if he had [then] been here, it would have been well (but he was NOT here).
- d. GENERAL CONDITIONS. Usually not differing in form from Particular Conditions (a, b, c); but sometimes distinguished in the cases following: -
  - 1. Present General Condition (Indefinite Time).
- (a) Present Subjunctive second person singular in protasis, Present Indicative in apodosis.
  - sī hoc dīcās, crēditur, if any one [ever] says this, it is [always] believed.
  - (8) Perfect Indicative in protasis, Present in apodosis.
  - sī quid dīxit, crēditur, if he [ever] says anything, it is [always] believed.
  - 2. Past General Condition (Repeated Action in Past Time).

- (a) Imperfect Subjunctive in protasis, Imperfect Indicative in apodosis.
  - sī quid dīceret, crēdēbātur, if he [ever] said anything it was [always] believed (= whatever he said was always believed).
  - (β) Pluperfect Indicative in protasis, Imperfect in apodosis. sī quid dīxerat, crēdēbātur, if he [ever] said anything, it was believed.

REMARK. — The use of tenses in Protasis is very loose in English. Thus, if he is alive now is a present condition, to be expressed in Latin by the Present Indicative; if he is alive next year is a future condition, expressed in Latin by the Future Indicative. Again, if he were here now is a present condition contrary to fact, and would be expressed by the Imperfect Subjunctive; if he were to see me thus is a future condition less vivid, to be expressed by the Present Subjunctive; and so, too, if you advised him, he would attend may be future less vivid.

## 3. Present and Past Conditions. - Nothing Implied.

- 306. (RULE 73.) In the statement of present and past conditions whose falsity is NOT timplied, the present and past tenses of the Indicative are used in both Protasis and Apodosis. Thus,
  - sī tū exercitusque valētis, bene est (Fam. v. 2), if you and the army are well, it is well. [Present Condition.]
  - sī quī māgnīs ingeniīs in eō genere exstitērunt, nōn satis Graecōrum glōriae respondērunt (Tusc. i. 3), if any men have appeared of great genius in that branch, they have failed to compete with the glory of the Greeks. [Past Condition.]
  - accēpī Rōmā sine epistulā tuā fasciculum litterārum in quō sī modo valuistī et Rōmae fuistī Philotimī dūcō esse culpam nōn tuam (Att. v. 17), I have received from Rome a bundle of letters without any from you, which, if you have been well and at Rome, I take to be the fault of Philotimus, not yours. [Mixed: Past condition and Present conclusion.]
  - quas litteras, sī Romae es, vidēbis putēsne reddendas (Att. v. 18), as to this letter, if you are at Rome, you will see whether in your opinion it ought to be delivered. [Mixed: Present and Future.]
  - sī nēmō impetrāvit adroganter rogō (Ligar. 30), if no one has succeeded in obtaining it, my request is presumptuous. [Past and Present.]
- a. In these conditions, the apodosis need not always be in the Indicative, but may assume any form, according to the sense. Thus,—

fuerit hoc censoris, sī iūdicābat (Div. i. 29), suppose it was the censor's duty, if he judged it false. [Hortatory Subjunctive.]

udial midian "

50

sī nondum satis cernitis, recordāminī (Milo, 61), if you do not yet see clearly, recollect. [Imperative.]

sī quid habēs certius, velim scīre (Att. iv. 10), if you have any trustworthy information, I should like to know it. [Subj. of Modesty, § 311. b.]

NOTE. — Although the *form* of these conditions does not imply anything as to their truth, the sense or context may have some such implication: as, —

nolīte, sī in nostro omnium flētū nūllam lacrimam aspexistis Milonis, hoc minus eī parcere (Milo, 92), do not, if amid the weeping of us all you have seen no tear [in the eyes] of Milo, spare him the less for that.

In this passage a cause is put by the speaker in the form of a noncommittal condition. His hearers are to draw the inference for themselves.

### 4. Future Conditions.

# 307. Future Conditions may be more or less vivid.

- 1. In a more vivid future condition the protasis makes a distinct supposition of a future case, the apodosis expressing what will be the result.
- 2. In a less vivid future condition, the supposition is less distinct, the apodosis expressing what would be the result in the case supposed.
- a. In the more vivid future condition the Future Indicative is used in both protasis and apodosis: as,—

sanabimur si volemus (Tusc. iii. 13), we shall be healed if we wish.

NOTE.— In English the protasis is usually expressed by the Present Indicative, rarely by the future with SHALL. Sometimes in Latin a condition of this kind has the Present Indicative in the protasis: as,—

- sī pereō hominum manibus periisse iuvābit (Æn. iii. 606), if I perish, it will be pleasant to have perished at the hands of men.
- b. In the less vivid future condition the Present Subjunctive is used in both protasis and apodosis: as,—

haec sī tēcum patria loquātur, nonne impetrāre dēbeat (Cat. i. 19), if your country should thus speak with thee, ought she not to prevail?

REMARK. — The present subjunctive sometimes stands in protasis with the future in apodosis from a change in the point of view of the speaker.

c. If the conditional act is regarded as completed before that of the apodosis begins, the Future Perfect is substituted for the Future Indicative in protasis, and the Perfect Subjunctive for the Present Subjunctive: as,—

sī non fēceris, īgnoscam (Fam. v. 19), if you do not do it, I will excuse you.

REMARK. — The Future Perfect is very often used in the apodosis of a future condition: as, —

vehementer mihi grātum fēceris, sī hunc adolēscentem hūmānitāte tuā comprehenderis (Fam. xiii. 15), you will do (will have done) me a great favor, if you receive this young man with your usual courtesy.

d. Any form implying future time may stand in the apodosis of a future condition. So the Imperative, the participles in -dus and -rus, and verbs of necessity, possibility, and the like: as,—

sī mē praecēperit fātum, võs mandāsse mementō, if fate cuts me off too soon, do you remember that I ordered this (Q. C. ix. 6, 26).

nisi oculīs vīderitis īnsidiās Milōnī ā Clōdiō factās, nec dēprecātūrī sumus nec postulātūrī (Milo, 6), unless you see with your own eyes the plots laid against Milo by Clodius, I shall neither beg nor demand, etc. nōn possum istum accūsāre sī cupiam (Verr. iv. 87), I cannot accuse him if I should desire to.

- e. Rarely the Perfect Indicative is used in apodosis with a Present or even a Future in protasis, to represent the conclusion rhetorically as already accomplished: as,
  - sī hoc bene fīxum in animō est, vīcistis (Liv. xxi. 44), if this is well fixed in your minds, you have conquered. [For you will have conquered.] sī eundem [animum] habueritis, vīcimus (id. 43), if you shall have kept the same spirit, we have conquered.
- f. A future condition is frequently thrown back into past time, without implying that it is contrary to fact (§ 308). In such cases the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive may be used: as,—

non poterat nisi vellet (B. C. iii, 44), was not able unless he wished. tumulus appāruit . . . sī lūce palam īrētur hostis praeventūrus erat (Liv. xxii. 24), a hill appeared . . . if they should go openly by light, the enemy would prevent. [The first two appear like ind. disc., but are not. An observer describing the situations as present ones would say potest sī velit (etc., see d), and no ind. disc. would be thought of.

## 5. Conditions Contrary to Fact.

808. (RULE 73.3.) In the statement of a supposition known to be false, the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are used in both Protasis and Apodosis. The imperfect refers to Present Time, the pluperfect to Past: as,—

quās sī exsequī nequīrem, tamen mē lectulus oblectāret meus (Cat. Maj. 38), if I could not [now] follow this (an active life), yet my couch would afford me pleasure. [Present.]

nisi tü āmīsissēs, nunquam recēpissem (id. 11), unless you had lost it, I should not have recovered it. [Past.]

(a. In conditions contrary to fact the Imperfect often refers to past time, both in protasis and apodosis, especially when a repeated or continued action is denoted, or when the condition if true would still exist: as,—

hīc sī mentis esset suae, ausus esset ēdūcere exercitum (Pis. 50), if he were of sane mind, would he have dared to lead out the army?

[Here esset denotes a continued state, past as well as present.]

b. In the apodosis of a condition contrary to fact the Past tenses of the Indicative may be used to express what was *intended*, or *likely*, or already begun: as,—

sī licitum esset mātrēs veniēbant (Verr. v. 129), the mothers were coming if it had been allowed (see § 305. c. 2).

iam tüta tenēbam, nī gēns crūdēlis ferrō invāsisset (Æn. vi. 358), I was just reaching a place of safety, had not the fierce people attacked me.

Remark. — In this use, the imperfect indicative corresponds in time to the imperfect subjunctive, and the perfect or pluperfect indicative to the pluperfect subjunctive.

c. Verbs and expressions denoting necessity, propriety, possibility, duty, when used in the Apodosis of a condition contrary to fact are regularly put in the Imperfect, Perfect, or Pluperfect Indicative instead of the Subjunctive: as,—

sī ita putāsset certē optābilius Milonī fuit (Mil. 31), if he had thought so, surely it would have been preferable for Milo.

sī Romae prīvātus esset hoc tempore, tamen is erat dēligendus (Manil. 50), if he (Pompey) were at this time a private citizen at Rome, yet he ought to be appointed.

- NOTE 1. In this construction it is only the thing necessary (etc.) that is conditioned, and not the necessity itself. If the necessity itself is conditioned, the Subjunctive is used as with other verbs. The difference is often imperceptible, but may be seen in the following example:
  - quid facere potuissem nisi tum consul fuissem? consul autem esse qui potui nisi eum vitae cursum tenuissem a pueritia (Rep. i. 10), what could I have done if I had not then been consul; and how could I have been consul if I had not followed that course of life from boyhood?
  - Note 2. This construction is sometimes carried further in poetry: as, sī non alium iactāret odorem, laurus erat (Georg. ii. 133), it were a laurel, but for giving out a different odor. \*
- d. The participle in -trus with eram or fut may take the place of an Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in the Apodosis of a condition contrary to fact: as.
  - quid enim futūrum fuit [= fuisset], sī ... (Liv. ii. 1), what would have happened if, etc.
  - neque ambigitur quin . . . id factūrus fuerit, sī . . . (id.), nor is there any question he would have done it if, etc. [Direct: fēcisset.]
- Note. This construction is regularly used when the apodosis is itself a dependent clause requiring the subjunctive, and also in Indirect Discourse. In Indirect Discourse fuisse replaces eram or fuī (see § 337).
- e. The Present and Perfect subjunctive are sometimes used in poetry in the protasis and apodosis of conditions contrary to fact: as,
  - nī comes admoneat, inruat (Æn. vi. 293), had not his companion warned him, he would have rushed on.
  - nī faciat maria āc terrās ferant (id. i. 58), unless he did this, they would bear away sea and land.
- Note. This is a remnant of an old construction. Its use puts the condition in a vivid form, as if possible at any moment in the future though not now true.

### 6. General Conditions.

- **309.** General Conditions (§ 304. d) have usually the same forms as Particular Conditions. But they are sometimes distinguished in the following three cases:—
- a. The Subjunctive is sometimes used in the second person singular, to denote the act of an Indefinite Subject (you = any one). Here the Indicative of a general truth may stand in the apodosis: as,—

- mens prope uti ferrum est: sī exerceas conteritur; nisi exerceas, rūbīginem contrahit (Cato de Mor.), the mind is very like iron: if you use it, it wears away; if you don't use it, it gathers rust.
- b. In later writers (not in Cicero), the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are used in protasis, with the Imperfect Indicative in apodosis, to state a repeated or customary action in past time: as,—

accūsātōrēs, sī facultās incideret, poenīs adficiēbantur (Tac. A. vi. 30), the accusers, whenever opportunity offered, were visited with punishment.

- (c. In a general condition in present time, the protasis often takes the Perfect, and the apodosis the Present Indicative. For past time, the Pluperfect is used in the protasis, and the Imperfect in the apodosis. Thus.
  - sī quōs aliquā membrōrum parte inūtilēs notāvērunt, necārī iubent (Q. C. ix. 1, 25), if they [ever] mark any infirm in any part of their limbs, they [always] order them to be put to death. [Present.]
  - sī ā persequendō hostēs dēterrēre nequiverant ab tergō circumveniēbant (Jug. 50), if [ever] they were unable to prevent the enemy from pursuing, they [always] surrounded them in the rear. [Past.]
- d. In all other cases, general suppositions including those introduced by Indefinite Relatives are not distinguished in form from Particular Conditions.

## 7. Condition Disguised.

- **310.** In many sentences properly conditional, the Protasis is not expressed by a conditional clause, but is stated in some other form of words or implied in the nature of the thought. Thus, —
- ( a. The condition may be implied in a Clause or in a Participle, Noun, Adverb, or some other word or phrase. Thus,
  - facile mē paterer illō ipsō iūdice quaerente prō Sex. Rosciō dīcere (Rosc. Am. 85), I should readily allow myself to speak for Roscius if that very judge were conducting the trial. [Present contrary to fact: sī quaereret, etc.]
  - nulla alia gens tanta mole cladis non obruta esset (Liv. xxii. 54), there is no other people that would not have been crushed by such a weight of disaster. [Past contrary to fact: si alia fuisset.]
  - nemo unquam sine magna spe immortalitatis, se pro patria offerret ad mortem (Tusc. i. 32), no one, without great hope of immortality, would ever expose himself to death for his country. [Present contrary to fact: nisi magnam spem haberet.]

(b. The condition may be contained in a Wish (optative subjunctive), or expressed as an Exhortation or Command (hortatory subjunctive, or imperative): as,—

utinam quidem fuissem! molestus nobis non esset (Fam. xii. 3), I wish I had been [chief]: he would not now be troubling us (i.e. if I had been). [Optative Subjunctive.]

Note. — The so-called concessive subjunctive with ut and ne often has the force of a protasis (§ 313. a): as, —

ut enim rationem Plato nullam afferret, ipsa auctoritate me frangeret (Tusc. i. 49), even if Plato gave no reason, [still] he would, etc.

c. Rarely the condition is in an independent clause, as, -

rīdēs: māiōre cachinnō concutitur (Juv. iii. 100), you laugh; he shakes with louder laughter (= if you laugh, he shakes).

d. The condition is often contained in a Relative Clause (§ 316). REMARK. — For the use of a participle as Apodosis, see § 304. c.

# 4

### 8. Condition Omitted. '

311. The Protasis is often wholly omitted, but may be inferred from the course of the argument. Thus,—

poterat Sextilius impūne negāre: quis enim redargueret (Fin. ii. 55), Sextilius might have denied with impunity; for who would prove him wrong (if he had).

REMARK. — Under this head apparently belongs the POTENTIAL SUB-JUNCTIVE.

# I. POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE.

(a. (RULE 72.) The Potential Subjunctive is used to denote an action not as actually performed, but as possible.

In this use the Present and the Perfect refer without distinction to the immediate future; the Imperfect to past time. The second person is common, indicating an Indefinite Subject (cf. § 309. a). Thus,—

hic quaerat quispiam (N. D. ii. 133), here some one may ask.

ut aliquis fortasse dixerit (Off. iii. 97), as one may perhaps say.

tum in lecto quoque videres susurros (Hor. Sat. ii. 8. 77), then on each couch you might hear whisperings.

NOTE 1. — The Present is sometimes used for the Imperfect: as, — migrantīs cernās (Æn. iv. 401), you might have seen them moving.

Note 2.— The Pluperfect is rare. Its place is supplied by the Imperfect: as,—

putässes eius lüctüs aliquem finem esse debere (Sen. Dial. 6, 13), you would have thought there ought to be some end to his grief.

Note 3.— The subjunctive with forsitan does not differ in meaning from the Potential Subjunctive, but is an Indirect Question (§ 334. g): as,—
forsitan haec illi mirentur (Verr. iv. 124), they may perchance marvel at these things.

REMARK. — The potential subjunctive is strictly an apodosis with omitted protasis, sometimes easily supplied, but often not present to the mind of the speaker. So also the Subjunctive of Modesty (b, below).

## II. SUBJUNCTIVE OF MODESTY.

b. The Subjunctive is used in cautious, modest, or hypothetical statements (coniunctivus modestiae). This use is especially common in a polite wish, with velim or vellem. Thus,—

pāce tuā dīxerim (Mil. 103), I would say by your leave.

tū velim sīc exīstimēs (Fam. xii. 6), I should like you to think so.

vix ausim crēdere (Ov. M. vi. 561), I should hardly dare believe.

vellem adesset M. Antōnius (Phil. i. 16), I could wish Antony were here.

[Here vellem implies an unfulfilled wish in present time; volō or nolō would express a peremptory wish.]

### III. VERBS OF NECESSITY.

c. The Indicative of verbs signifying necessity, propriety, and the like, may be used in the apodosis of implied conditions, either future or contrary to fact: as,—

longum est ea dicere, sed . . . (Sest. 12), it would be tedious to tell, etc. [Future.]

illud erat aptius, aecum cuique concēdere (Fin. iv. 2), it would be more fitting to yield each one his rights.

quanto melius fuerat (Off. iii. 94), how much better it would have been.

REMARK. — Notice that, in this construction, the Imperfect indicative refers to present time; the Pluperfect to simply past time, like the Perfect. Thus oportebat means it ought to be [now], but is not; oportureat means it ought to have been, but was not.

Note. — In many cases it is impossible to say whether a protasis was present to the mind of the speaker or not.

## g. Complex Conditions.

d. Either the protasis or the apodosis may be a complex idea in which the main statement is made with expressed or implied qualifications. In such cases the true logical relation of the parts is sometimes disguised: as,—

sī quis hōrum dīxisset . . . sī verbum dē rēpūblicā fēcisset . . . multa plūra dīxisse quam dīxisset putārētur (Rosc. Am. 2), if any of these had spoken, in case he had said a word about politics, he would be thought to have said much more than he did say. [Here the apodosis of dīxisset is the whole of the following statement (sī . . . putārētur), which is itself conditioned by a protasis of its own: sī verbum, etc.]. quod sī in hōc mundō fierī sine deō nōn potuit nē in sphaerā quidem eōsdem mōtūs sine dīvīnō ingeniō potuisset imitārī (Tusc. i. 63) now if that cannot be done in this universe without divine agency, no more could [Archimedes] in his orrery have imitated the same revolutions without divine genius. [Here sī potuit (a protasis with nothing implied) has for its apodosis the whole clause which follows, but potuisset has a contrary-to-fact protasis of its own implied in sine . . . ingeniō.]

10. Particles of Comparison (Conclusion Omitted).

312. The particles of Comparison—tamquam, tamquam sī, quasi, ācsī, utsī, velutsī, veluti, and poetic ceu (all meaning as if), and quam sī (than if)—take the Present or Perfect Subjunctive, unless these are changed by the sequence of tenses. Thus,—

tamquam clausa sit Asia (Fam. xii. 9), as if Asia were closed.

ita hos [honores] petunt, quasi honeste vixerint (Jug. 85), they seek them (offices) just as if they had lived honorably.

velut sī cōram adesset (B. G. i. 32), as if he were present in person.

ceu cetera nusquam bella forent (Æn. ii. 438), as if there were no fighting elsewhere.

magis quam sī domī essēs (Att. vii. 4), more than if you were at home.

REMARK. — The English idiom would lead us to expect the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive with these particles; but the point of view is different in the two languages.

### 11. Concessive Clauses.

- 313. The particles of Concession (meaning although, granting that) are: quamquam quamlibet, quamvis quantumvis, ut, ne, cum, licet, etsi, tametsi, etiamsi
- a. Quamvis, quatumvis, quamlibet, ut, and no take the Subjunctive (§ 266. c): as,
  - quamvis ipsī infantēs sint, tamen . . . (Or. 76), however incapable of speaking they themselves may be, yet, etc.
  - ut nëminem alium rogasset (Mil. 46), even if he had asked no other.
- b. Licet (properly a verb) takes a Substantive clause in the Subjunctive (§ 331. c): as,
  - licet omnës in më terrorës periculaque impendeant (Rosc. Am. 31), though all terrors and perils should menace me.
- NOTE. The subjunctive with licet is by the sequence of tenses necessarily limited to the Present and Perfect tenses.
- c. Etsi, etiamsi, tametsi, even if, take the same constructions as si (§ 305): as,
  - etsī abest mātūritās (Fam. vi. 184), though ripeness of age is wanting. etsī nihil aliud abstulissētis (Sull. 90), even if you had taken away nothing
  - etiamsī quod scrībās non habēbis, scrībito tamen (Fam. xvi. 26), even if you [shall] have nothing to write, still write.
  - d. Cum concessive takes the Subjunctive (see § 326): as, —
  - cum mihi non omnīno excidisset (Fam. v. 13, 2), though it had not entirely vanished [from my mind].
- e. Quamquam introduces an admitted fact and takes the Indicative: as,
  - omnibus quamquam ruit ipse suīs clādibus pestem dēnūntiat (Phil. xiv. 8), though he is breaking down under his disasters, still he threatens all with destruction.
- f. Quamquam more commonly means and yet, introducing a correction in the indicative: as,
  - quamquam haec quidem tolerābilia vidēbantur, etsī, etc. (Mil. 76), and yet these, in truth, seemed now bearable, though, etc.

g. The poets and later writers frequently use quamvis and quamquam like etsi, connecting them with the Indicative or the Subjunctive, according to the nature of the condition. Thus,—

quamquam movērētur (Liv. xxxvi. 34), although he was moved.

Pollio amat nostram, quamvīs est rūstica, mūsam (Ecl. iii. 84), Pollio loves my muse, though she is rustic.

Note. — Even Cicero occasionally uses quamquam with the Subjunctive : as, —

- quamquam ne id quidem suspīcionem coitionis habuerit (Planc. 53), though not even that raised any suspicion of a coalition.
- h. The Relative pronoun qui is often used with the Subjunctive to express concession (see § 320.  $\epsilon$ ).
- i. Concession is often expressed by the Hortatory Subjunctive without a particle (§ 266): as,
  - sit clārus Scīpīo, ōrnētur eximiā laude Āfricānus, habeātur vir ēgregius Paullus . . . erit profectō inter hōrum laudēs aliquid locī nostrae glōriae (Cat. iv. 21), let Scipio be renowned, let Africanus be honored with especial praise, let Paulus be regarded as a remarkable man, [still] there will surely be some room for my glory amid the praises of these men.

### 12. Proviso.

314. (RULE 74.) Dum, modo, dummodo, and tantum, introducing a Proviso, take the Subjunctive: as,—

öderint dum metuant (Off. i. 97), let them hate, if only they fear.

valētūdo modo bona sit (Brut. 64), provided the health is good.

- dummodo inter mē atque tē mūrus intersit (Cat. i. 10), provided only the wall (of the city) is between us.
- a. In a negative proviso ne is used, with or without modo, etc.: as,
  - modo në sit ex pecudum genere (Off. i. 105), provided [in pleasure] he be not of the herd of cattle.
  - id faciat saepe, dum ne lassus fiat (Cato R. R. v. 4), let him do this often, provided he does not get tired.
  - dummodo ea (sevēritās) nē variētur (Q. Fr. i. 1, 20), provided only it (strictness) be not allowed to swerve.

tantum në noceat (Ov. M. ix. 21), only let it do no harm.

- b. The Hortatory Subjunctive without a particle sometimes expresses a proviso (see § 266. d): as,
  - sint Maecēnātēs, non deerunt, Flacce, Maronēs (Mart. viii. 56, 5), so there be Mæcenases, Virgils will not be lacking.
    - 13. Use of 87 and its Compounds.
- 315. The uses of some of the more common Conditional Particles may be stated as follows:—
- ca. I. Si is used for affirmative, nisi (ni) and si non for negative conditions. With nisi (generally unless) the apodosis is stated as universally true except in the single case supposed, in which case it is (impliedly) not true. Thus,
  - nisi Conon adest maereo, unless Conon is here, I mourn (i.e. I am always in a state of grief except in the single case of Conon's presence, in which case I am not).
- With si non (if not) the apodosis is only stated as true in the (negative) case supposed, but as to other cases no statement is made. Thus,
  - si Conon non adest maereo, if Conon is not here I mourn (i.e. I mourn in the single case of Conon's absence, nothing being said as to other cases in which I may or may not mourn).
- 2. Nī is an old form surviving in a few conventional phrases, and reappearing in poets and later writers.

Sometimes nisi sī, except if, unless, occurs: as, -

- nölī putāre mē ad quemquam longiörēs epistulās scrībere, nisi sī quis ad mē plūra scrīpsit (Fam. xiv. 2), except in case one writes more to me.
- b. Nisi vērō and nisi forte regularly introduce an objection or exception ironically, and take the Indicative: as,
  - nisi vērō L. Caesar crūdēlior vīsus est (Cat. Iv. 13), unless, indeed, L. Cæsar seemed too cruel.
- Note. This is the regular way of introducing a reductio ad absurdum in Latin. Nisi alone is sometimes used in this sense: as,
  - nisi unum hoc faciam ut in puteo cenam coquant (Plaut. Aul. 365), unless I do this one thing, [make them] cook dinner in the well.
- c. Sive (seu)... sive (seu), whether... or, introduce a condition in the form of an alternative. They may be used with any form of condition, or with different forms in the two members. Often also they are used without a verb. Thus,—

nam illö locö libentissimë soleö ütī, sīve quid mēcum ipse cögitö, sīve quid aut scrībō aut legō (De Leg. ii. 1), for I enjoy myself most in that place, whether I am thinking by myself or am either writing or reading.

Note. - Sive . . . seu and seu . . . sive are late or poetic.

### DEPENDENT CONSTRUCTIONS.

### I. RELATIVE CLAUSES.

Dependent Relative Clauses may be thus classified: -

- I. Conditional Relative Clauses (§ 316).
- 2. Clauses of Purpose (Final Clauses) (§ 317).
- 3. Clauses of CHARACTERISTIC, including
  - a. Simple Result (Consecutive Clauses) (§ 319).
  - Clauses of Characteristic (including cause and hindrance) (§§ 320, 321).
  - c. Clauses of Time (§§ 322 ff.).

### 1. Conditional Relative Clauses.

- 316. A clause introduced by a Relative Pronoun or Relative Adverb may be treated as a conditional clause and take the constructions of Protasis (§ 305): as,
  - quī enim vitiīs modum apponit, is partem suscipit vitiorum (Tusc. iv. 42), he who [only] sets a limit to faults, takes up the side of the faults. [=sī quis apponit.]
  - quod qui faciet, non aegritudine solum vacabit, sed, etc. (Tusc. iv. 38), and he who does [shall do] this, will be free not only, etc. [=si quis faciet.]
  - philosophia, cui qui păreat, omne tempus aetătis sine molestia possit degere (Cat. Maj. 2), philosophy, which IF any one should obey, he could spend his whole life without vexation. [=sī quis păreat.]
  - quaecumque causa võs hūc attulisset, laetārer (De Or. ii. 15), I should be glad, whatever cause had brought you here (i.e. if any other, as well as the one which did). [=sī...attulisset.]

NOTE. — The relative in this construction is always Indefinite in meaning, and more commonly in form.

a. The special constructions of General Conditions are sometimes found in Conditional Relative Clauses: viz.,—

- 1. The Second Person Singular Subjunctive in the protasis with the Indicative of a general truth in the apodosis (§ 309. a): as,
  - bonus segnior fit, ubi neglegās (Jug. 31, 28), a good man becomes less diligent when you don't watch him.
- 2. In later writers the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in the protasis and the Imperfect Indicative in the apodosis: as,
  - quōcumque sē intulisset, victōriam sēcum trahēbat (Liv. vi. 8), wherever he advanced, he carried victory with him.
- 3. The Perfect or Pluperfect Indicative in the protasis and the Present or Imperfect Indicative in the apodosis (§ 309. c): as,
  - cum ad villam vēnī, hōc ipsum nihil agere mē dēlectat (De Or. ii. 24),
    whenever I come to the villa, this very doing nothing delights me
    (whenever I have come, etc.). [Present General Condition.]
  - cum rosam viderat, tum incipere vēr arbitrābātur (Verr. v. 27), whenever he saw (had seen) a rose, then he thought spring was beginning. [Past General Condition.]

## . 2. Clauses of Purpose.

317. (Rule 75.) A clause expressing purpose is called a Final Clause.

Final clauses take the Subjunctive introduced by ut (uti), negative nē (ut nē), or by a Relative pronoun or adverb.

They may be divided into Pure, Relative, and Substantive.

- 1. Pure Clauses of Purpose are introduced by ut (uti) or nē. They express the purpose of the main verb in the form of a modifying clause.
- 2. Relative Clauses of Purpose are introduced by the Relative pronoun qui, or by the Relative adverbs ubi, unde, quo, etc. The antecedent is expressed or implied in the main clause.
- 3. Substantive Clauses of Purpose are introduced by ut (uti), negative no. They differ from Pure Final Clauses in having the construction of a substantive. (For Substantive Clauses of Purpose, see § 331.)

Examples of Pure and Relative clauses of purpose are —

ab arātrō abdūxērunt Cincinnātum, ut dictātor esset (Fin. ii. 12), they brought Cincinnatus from the plough that he might be dictator.

ne qua eius adventūs procul significātio fiat (B. G. vi. 29), that no sign of his arrival may be made at a distance.

ut në sit impune (Mil. 31), that it be not with impunity.

l' scribëbat örātiönës quās alii dicerent (Brut. 206), he wrote speeches for other men to deliver.

eo exstincto fore unde discerem neminem (Cat. Maj. 12), that when he was dead there would be nobody from whom (whence) I could learn.

Note. — The Relative in this construction is equivalent to ut with the corresponding demonstrative. Thus qui = ut is (etc.), ubi = ut ibi, and so on (cf. § 319. note).

a. Sometimes the relative or conjunction has a correlative in the main clause: as, —

lēgibus idcirco omnes servīmus, ut līberī esse possīmus (Clu. 146), for this reason we are all subject to the laws, that we may be free.

eo consilio . . . ut (regularly), with this design, that, etc.

eā causā . . . nē, for this reason, lest, etc.

b. The ablative quo (= ut eo) is used as a conjunction in final clauses which contain a comparative: as,—

lībertāte ūsus est, quo impūnius dicāx esset (Quinct. 11), he took advantage of liberty, to bluster with more impunity (by which the more).

Note i. — So quominus ( = ut eo minus) introduces a subjunctive clause after verbs of hindering (see § 331. e).

Note 2. — Occasionally quo introduces final clauses which do not contain a comparative: as, —

quō sibi (exercitum) fīdum faceret (Sall. Cat. 11), in order to make the army devoted to himself.

c. The Principal clause, on which a final clause depends, is often to be supplied from the context. Thus, —

āc nē longum sit . . . iūssimus (Cat. iii. 10), and, not to be tedious, we ordered, etc. [Strictly, in order not to be tedious, I say, we ordered.] sed ut eodem revertar, causa haec fuit timoris (Fam. vi. 7, 3), but, to return to the same point, this was the cause of fear.

REMARK. — By a similar ellipsis the subjunctive is used with nedum (sometimes ne), still less, not to mention that: as, —

nēdum . . . salvī esse possīmus (Clu. 95), much less could we be safe.

nēdum istī... non statim conquisītūrī sint aliquid sceleris et flāgitī (Leg. Ag. ii. 97), far more will they hunt up at once some sort of crime and scandal.

quippe secundae res sapientium animos fatigant; ne illi corruptis moribus victoriae temperarent (Sall. Cat. 11), for prosperity overmasters the souls, even of the wise; much less did they with their corrupt morals put any check on victory.

Note. — With nedum the verb itself is often omitted: as, —

aptius hūmānitātī tuae quam tōta Peloponnēsus nēdum Patrae (Fam. vii. 28, 1), fitter for your refinement than all Peloponnesus, to say nothing of Patra.

REMARK. — Clauses of Purpose are sometimes rendered in English by that or in order that, with may or might; but more frequently by the Infinitive with To: as, —

vēnī ut vidērem, I came to see (that I might see).

318. The Purpose of an action is expressed in Latin in various ways; but never (except rarely in poetry) by the simple Infinitive as in English (§ 273).

The sentence, they came to seek peace, may be rendered—

- (1) vēnērunt ut pācem peterent. [Final clause with ut (§ 317).]
- (2) vēnērunt quī pācem peterent. (Final clause with Relative (§ 317).]
- (3) [vēnērunt ad petendum pācem.] (Not found with transitive verbs (§ 300. note), but cf. ad pārendum senātuī.) [Gerund with ad (§ 300.]
- (4) vēnērunt ad petendam pācem. [Gerundive with ad (§ 300).]
- (5) vēnērunt pācem petendī causā (grātiā). [Gen. of Gerund with causā or grātiā (§ 298. c).]
- (6) vēnērunt pācis petendae causā (grātiā). [Gen. of Gerundive with causā (§ 298. c).]
- (7) vēnērunt pācem petītūrī. [Future participle (§ 293. b): not in Cicero.]
- (8) vēnērunt pācem petītum. [Former supine (§ 302).]

These forms are not used indifferently, but -

a. The usual way of expressing purpose is by ut (negatively ne), unless the purpose is closely connected with some one word, in which case a relative is more common. Thus,—

Arria gladium dedit marītō ut sē interficeret, Arria gave her husband a sword to kill himself (that he might kill himself).

Arria gladium dedit marītō quō sē interficeret, Arria gave her husband a sword to kill himself with (with which he might, etc.).

b. The Gerund and Gerundive constructions of purpose are usually limited to short expressions, where the literal translation of the

phrase, though not the English idiom, is nevertheless not harsh or strange.

- c. The Supine is used to express purpose only with verbs of motion, and in a few idiomatic expressions (§ 302).
- d. The Future Participle used to express purpose is a late construction (§ 293. b).

# 3. Clauses of Result.

NOTE. — The use of the Subjunctive to express Result comes from its use in Clauses of Characteristic.

319. (RULE 76.) A clause that expresses Result is called a Consecutive Clause.

Consecutive Clauses take the Subjunctive introduced by ut, so that (negative, ut non), or by a Relative (pronoun or adverb).

They may be divided into Pure, Relative, and Substantive (cf. § 317).

I. Pure Clauses of Result are introduced by ut or ut non. They express the result of the main verb in the form of a modifying clause.

- C2. Relative Clauses of Result are introduced by the Relative pronoun qui, or by the Relative adverbs ubi, unde, quo, etc. The antecedent is expressed or implied in the main clause.
- (3. Substantive Clauses of Result are introduced by ut or ut non. They differ from Pure consecutive clauses in having the construction of a substantive. (For Substantive Clauses of Result, see § 332.)

Examples of Pure and Relative Clauses of Result are -

tanta vis probitatis est ut eam in hoste diligamus (Læl. 29), so great is the power of goodness that we love it even in an ensmy.

nam est innocentia affectio talis animi, quae noceat nemini (Tusc. iii. 16), for innocence is such a quality of mind as to do harm to no one.

nulla est celeritas quae possit cum animi celeritate contendere (Tusc. i. 43), there is no swiftness which can compare, etc.

Note. — The Relative in this construction is equivalent to ut with the corresponding demonstrative. Thus, qui=ut is (etc.), ubi=ut ibi, and so on (cf. § 317. note).

REMARK. — Clauses of Result are often introduced by such correlative words as tam, tālis, tantus, ita, sīc, adeō, usque eō, which belong to the main clause.

[§ 319.

DEPENDENT CONSTRUCTIONS.

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a. A negative result is regularly expressed by ut or qui with non, nomo, and similar negatives (not no). Thus,—

multīs gravibusque vulneribus confectus ut iam se sustinere non posset (B. G. ii. 25), used up with many severe wounds so that he could no longer stand.

nemo est tam senex qui se annum non putet posse vivere (Cat. Maj. 24), nobody is so add a not to think that he can live a year.

NOTE. — When the result implies an effect intended (not a simple purpose), ut ne or ne is sometimes used as being less positive than ut non: as, —

[librung]ita corrigăs ne mihi noceat (Fam. vi. 7, 6), correct the book so that it may not hurt me.

Frequently a clause of result is used in a restrictive sense, and so amounts to a Proviso (cf. § 314): as,—

hoc est ita utile ut ne plane illudamyr ab accusatoribus (Rosc. Am. 55), this is so far useful that we are not utterly mocked by the accusers (i.e. useful only on this condition, that, etc.).

c. The subjunctive with the Relative quominus (= ut eo minus) may be used to express a result after words of hindering or refusing (cf. § 317. b. noted ): as =

nec aetas impedit quominus agri colendi studia teneamus (Cat. Maj. 60), nor does age prevent us from retaining an interest in tilling the

d. A plause of result is introduced by puin after general negatives, where quin is equil tent to qui (quae, quod) non; so, also after negative clauses of hindrance, resistance, doubt, hesitation, and the like Thus,—

nihil est Norum tuin [ \ uod non] ego illī dīxerim (Plaut. Bac. 1012), there is not thing of this that I have not told him.

that).

aegre (vix) abstinut quin . . ., I hardly refrained from, etc. nihil impedit quin . . ., there is nothing to prevent, etc.

REMARK.—The constructions of Purpose and Result in Latin are precisely alike in the *affirmative* (but see *sequence*, § 287. c), but in the negative, Purpose takes ne, Result ut non, etc. Thus,—

custoditus est ne effugeret, he was guarded in order that he MIGHT not escape.

custoditus est ut non effugeret, he was guarded so that he DID not.

my look this way

undicate a characteristic of the auto or dent with one

§ 320.] CLAUSES OF CHARACTERISTIC.

So in Purpose clauses ne quis, ne quid, ne üllus, ne quo, nequando, necubi, etc., are used; in Result clauses, ut nemo, ut nihil, ut nullus, etc. Thus.—

cernere në quis eos neu quis contingere posset (Æn. i. 413), that no one might see them, no one touch them.

ita multī sunt imbēcillī senēs ut nūllum officī mūnus exsequī possint (Cat. Maj. 35), many old men are so feeble that they cannot perform their duties to society.

në quando liberis proscriptorum bona patria reddantur (Rosc. Am. 145), lest ever the patrimony of the proscribed should be restored to their children.

The clause of Result is sometimes expressed in English by the Infinitive with TO or SO-AS-TO or an equivalent: as,—

tam longë aberam ut nön vidërem, I was too far away to see (so far that I did not see: cf. § 320. c).

4. Clauses of Characteristic.

320. (RULE 77.) A relative clause with the Subjunctive is often used to indicate a *characteristic* of the antecedent, where there is no idea of Result.

This construction is especially common where the antecedent is otherwise undefined. Thus,—

neque enim tū is es, qui nesciās (Fam. v. 12, 6), for you are not such a one, as not to know.

multa dicunt quae vix intellegant (Fin. iv. 2), they say many things which (such as) they hardly understand.

a. A relative clause of characteristic is used after general expressions of existence or non-existence, including questions implying a negative, especially with sunt qui, there are [some] who; quis est qui, who is there who? Thus,—

sunt qui discessum animi a corpore putent esse mortem (Tusc. i. 18), there are some who think that the departure of soul from body constitutes death.

erant qui Helvidium miserarentur (Ann. xvi. 29), there were some who pitied Helvidius. [Cf. est cum (§ 322. Rem.).]

NOTE.—These are called Relative Clauses with an Indefinite Antecedent, but are to be distinguished from the Indefinite Relative in protasis (see § 316).

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Che A relative clause of characteristic may follow unus and solus:

sõlus es cūius in victoria ceciderit nemo nisi armatus (Deiot. 34), you are the only man at whose victory no one has fallen unless armed.

c. A clause of result or characteristic, with quam ut, quam qui, may be used after comparatives: as,—

māiōrēs arborēs caedēbant quam quās ferre mīles posset (Liv. xxxiii. 5), they cut larger trees than what a soldier could carry (too large for a soldier to carry).

Canachī sīgna rigidiora sunt quam ut imitentur vēritātem (Brut. 70), the statues of Canachus are too stiff to represent nature (stiffer than that they should).

NOTE. - This construction corresponds to the English too . . . to.

d. A relative clause of characteristic is used in expressions of Restriction or Proviso (cf. § 319. b): as,—

quod sciam, so far as I know.

servus est nēmō, quī modo tolerābilī condiciōne sit servitūtis (Cat. iv. 16), there is not a slave, at least in any tolerable condition of slavery.

c. A relative clause expressing cause or concession takes the subjunctive (§§ 313. h, 321. b): as,—

virum simplicem qui nos nihil celet (Or. 230), oh ! guileless man, who hides nothing from us! [Causal.]

peccasse mihi videor qui a të discesserim (Fam. xvi. 1), I seem to myself to have done wrong because I have left you. [Causal.]

NOTE. — In this use the relative is equivalent to cum is, etc. It is often preceded by ut, utpote, or quippe: as, —

nec consul, ut qui id ipsum quaesisset, moram certamini fecit (Liv. xlii.
7), nor did the consul delay the fight, inasmuch as he had sought that very thing (as [being one] who had sought, etc.).

convīvia cum patre non inībat, quippe quī ne in oppidum quidem nisi perrāro venīret (Rosc. Am. 52), since he did not even come, etc.

f. (RULE 78.) Dignus, indignus, aptus, idoneus take a clause probably of result with a relative (or rarely with ut): as,—

dīgna in quibus ēlaborārent (Tusc. i. 1), (things) worth spending their toil on (worthy on which they should, etc.).

indīgnus erās quī facerēs iniūriam, it was beneath you to do a wrong (you were unworthy who should, etc.).

idoneus qui impetret (Manil. 57), fit to obtain.

Note. — With these words the poets often use the Infinitive: as, — fons rīvo dare nomen idoneus (Hor. Ep. i. 16, 12), a source fit to give a name to a stream.

aetas mollis et apta regi (Ov.), a time of life soft and easy to be guided.

# 5. Causal Clauses.

321. (Rule 79.) The Causal Particles quod, quia, and quoniam take the Indicative, when the reason is given on the authority of the writer or speaker; the Subjunctive, when the reason is given on the authority of another: as,—

1. Indicative : -

cum tibi agam grātiās quod mē vīvere coēgistī (Att. iii. 3), when I may thank you that you have forced me to live.

quia postrēma aedificāta est (Verr. iv. 119), because it was built last.

quoniam de utilitate diximus, de efficiendi ratione (Or. Part. 94), since we have spoken of its advantage, let us speak of the method of effecting it.

2. Subjunctive : -

mihi grātulābāre quod audīssēs mē meam prīstinam dīgnitātem obtinēre (Fam. iv. 14, 1,) you congratulated me because [as you said] you had heard, etc.

mea mater îrata est quia non redierim (Plaut. Cist. 103), my mother is angry because I did n't return.

NOTE 1. — The Subjunctive in this use depends on the principle of Intermediate Clauses (§ 341. d).

REMARK.—Non quod, non quia, non quoniam, introducing a reason expressly to deny it, take the Subjunctive. Non quo and non quin introduce a Result clause, but with nearly the same meaning (§ 341. d. Rem.). Thus,—

pugilēs ingemiscunt, non quod doleant, sed quia omne corpus intenditur (Tusc.ii. 56), boxers groan not because they are in pain, but because, etc. non quia philosophia percipi non posset (id. i. 1), not that philosophy can-

not be acquired.

non quoniam hoc sit necesse (Verr. II. i. 24), not that this is necessary.

non quin enitendum sit (De Or. ii. 295), not that pains must not be taken.

- a. Causal Clauses introduced by quod, etc., take the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse, like any other dependent clause (see § 336).
- b. A Relative, when used to express cause, regularly takes the Subjunctive (see § 320. e).
  - c. Cum causal takes the Subjunctive (see § 326).

Note. - In early Latin cum causal takes the Indicative (§ 326. note 3).

#### 6. Relations of Time.

322. The particles ubi, ut, cum, quando, alone or with cumque, may be used as Indefinite Relatives, and have the constructions of protasis (cf. § 316). Thus,—

cum id malum esse negās (Tusc. ii. 29), when you (the individual disputant) deny it to be an evil. [Present, nothing implied (cf. § 306).]

quod profecto cum me nulla vis cogeret, facere non auderem (Phil. v. 51), which I would surely not venture to do, as long as no force compelled me. [Present, contrary to fact: cf. § 308.]

cum videas eos . . . dolore non frangi (Tusc. ii. 66), when you see that those are not broken by pain, etc. [General condition: cf. § 309. a.] id ubi dixisset, hastam in fines eorum ēmittēbat (Liv. i. 32, 13), when he had said this, he used to cast the spear into their territories. [Repeated action: see § 300. b.]

REMARK. — Rarely a time characterized by its circumstances, etc. . . . So the phrases est cum, fuit cum, etc., are used in general expressions like est qui, sunt qui (§ 320. a): as,—

āc fuit quidem cum mihi quoque initium requiescendī fore iūstum arbitrārer (De Or. i. 1), and there was a time when I thought a beginning of rest would be justifiable on my part.

# 323. Temporal clauses have two uses :-

1. They themselves define (with reference to the time of the speaker) the time of the clause on which they depend.

2. They describe by its circumstances the time of the main clause, which is defined not by them, but by the main clause itself.

Thus, in: When did the Emperor Frederick die? He died while the people were still mourning the death of his father, the time of the main clause, he died, is definitely fixed by the temporal clause, while the people, etc., as is seen by the fact that the temporal clause answers the question, WHEN did he die? But in: The Emperor Frederick died while the people were still mourning the death of his father, the time of the main clause is not defined by the temporal clause, but is regarded as sufficiently definite in itself (or from the context). The temporal clause is added to describe that time by the circumstances of the people's grief.

These two sorts of temporal clauses the Romans distinguished by means of the *mood*, invariably using the Indicative in the first and the Subjunctive in the second. They commonly also used the particles and the tenses in accordance with this division.

### I. POSTQUAM, UBI, ETC.

324. The particles postquam (posteāquam), ubi, ut (ut primum, ut semel), simul atque (simul āc, or simul) take the Indicative (usually in the ferfect or the historical present): as,—

milites postquam victoriam adopti sunt, nihil reliqui victos fecere (Sall. Cat. II), when the armies had won the victory, they lest nothing to the vanquished.

ubi omnës idem sentīre intellēxit (B. G. iii. 23), when he understood that all agreed (thought the same thing).

simul āc persēnsit (Æn. iv. 90), as soon as he perceived.

- a. These particles less commonly take the Imperfect or Pluperfect indicative. The Imperfect in this case denotes a state of things; the Pluperfect, an action completed in past time. Thus,—
  - P. Āfricānus posteāquam bis consul et censor fuerat (Div. in Cæc. 69), when Africanus had been (i.e. had the dignity of having been) twice consul and censor.
  - haec iuventūtem, ubi familiārēs opēs dēfēcerant, ad facinora incendēbant (Sall. Cat. 13), when their inherited resources had given out.
    - b. Rarely some of these particles take the subjunctive : as, -
    - posteāquam māximās aedificāsset ōrnāssetque clāssēs (Manil. 9), having built and equipped mighty fleets (after he had, etc.). [But the more approved editions have posteā cum.]

#### II. CUM TEMPORAL.

325. (Rule 80.) Cum (quom) TEMPORAL, meaning when, takes the Imperfect and Pluperfect in the Subjunctive, other tenses in the Indicative. Thus,—

cum servīlī bellō premerētur (Manil. 30), when she (Italy) was under the load of the Servile War.

cum id nūntiātum esset, mātūrat (B. G. i. 7), when this had been reported he made (makes) haste.

cum occiditur Sex. Roscius, ibīdem fuērunt servī (Rosc. Am. 120), when Roscius was slain, the slaves were on the spot.

[For examples with the Future, see c, below.]

Note. — The Present takes the Indicative, because present time is generally, from its very nature, defined in the mind; and it is only when the circumstances are described as causal or adversative (see below, § 326),

that the Subjunctive is used. The Perfect takes the Indicative as the tense of narration, as with postquam, etc. The Imperfect and Pluperfect are, from their nature, better fitted to describe than to define the time.

(a) Cum temporal sometimes takes the Imperfect and Pluperfect Indicative to indicate a definite past time: as,—

quem quidem cum ex urbe pellēbam, hōc providēbam animo (Cat. iii. 16), when I was trying to force him (conative imperfect) from the city, I looked forward to this.

tum cum in Asiā rēs māgnās permultī āmīserant (Manil. 19), at that time, when many had lost great fortunes in Asia.

b. When the clauses are inverted, so that the logical temporal clause becomes the main clause, and the main clause becomes the temporal clause, the Indicative must be used with cum: as,—

hoc facere noctū apparābant, cum mātrēs familiae repentē in pūblicum procurrērunt (B. G. vii. 26), they were preparing to do this by night, when the women suddenly ran out into the streets.

c. To denote future time cum takes the Future or Future Perfect Indicative: as,—

longum illud tempus cum non ero (Att. xii. 18), that long time when I shall be no more.

cum vēneris, cōgnōscēs (Fam. v. 7), when you come (shall have come) you will find out.

REMARK. — Rarely a future time is characterized and takes the Subjunctive.

### III. CUM CAUSAL OR CONCESSIVE.

326. (RULE 81.) Cum CAUSAL or CONCESSIVE takes the Subjunctive: as,—

cum prīmī ōrdinēs...concidissent, tamen ācerrimē reliquī resistēbant (B. G. vii. 61), though the first ranks had fallen, still the others resisted vigorously. [Concessive.]

NOTE 1. — Cum in these uses is often emphasized by ut, utpote, quippe, praesertim: as,—

nec reprehendō: quippe cum ipse istam reprehensionem non fügerim (Att. x. 3), I find no fault: since I myself did not escape that blame.

NOTE 2.—These causal and concessive relations are merely variations of the idea of time. The attendant circumstances are regarded as the cause of the action, or as tending to hinder it (cf. quī causal and concessive).

Note 3. — In early Latin cum (quom) causal and concessive usually takes the Indicative. So sometimes in classical Latin: as,—

quom tua res distrahitur, utinam videam (Plaut. Trin. 573), since your property is torn in pieces, oh! that I may see, etc. [Cf. § 313. d. note.]

REMARK. — Cum causal may usually be translated by since; cum concessive by although or while.

a. Cum in the sense of quod, on the ground that, frequently takes the Indicative: as, —

grātulor tibi cum tantum valēs apud Dolābellam (Fam. ix. 14, 3), I congratulate you that you are so strong with Dolabella.

b. Cum . . . tum, signifying both . . . and, usually takes the Indicative; but when cum approaches the sense of while or though, it may have the Subjunctive (§ 326). Thus,—

cum multa non probo, tum illud in prīmīs (Fin. i. 18), while there are many things I do not approve, there is this in chief. But—

cum res tota ficta sit pueriliter, tum ne efficit quidem quod vult (id. 19), while the whole thing is childishly got up, he does not even make his point (accomplish what he wishes).

### IV. ANTEQUAM AND PRIUSQUAM.

327. Antequam and priusquam, before, have in narration the same construction as cum temporal (§ 325): as,—

antequam tuās lēgī litterās (Att. ii. 7), before I read your letter.

neque ante dimisit eum quam fidem dedit adulēscēns (Liv. xxxix. 10), she did not let the young man go till he pledged his faith.

antequam homines nefării de meo adventu audire potuissent, in Macedoniam perrexi (Planc. 98), before those evil men could learn of my coming, I arrived in Macedonia.

NOTE. — The idea of purpose (usually corresponding to could or should in English) regularly requires the subjunctive: as,—

nunquam prius discēssit quam ad fīnem sermō esset perdūctus, i.e. he waited for the conversation to be finished.

a. Antequam and priusquam, when referring to future time, take the Present or Future Perfect Indicative; rarely the Present Subjunctive: as,—

priusquam de ceteris rebus respondeo, de amicitia pauca dicam (Phil. ii. 3), before I reply to the rest, I will say a little on friendship.

antequam veniat litteräs mittet (Ag. ii. 53), before he comes, he will send a letter.

- b. In a few cases the Subjunctive of the indefinite second person is found with antequam and priusquam (cf. § 309 a): as,
  - in omnibus negōtiīs priusquam aggrediāre, adhibenda est praeparātiō dīligēns (Off. 1, 73), in all undertakings, before you proceed to action, careful preparation must be used.

## V. DUM, DÖNEC, AND QUOAD.

328. Dum, donec, and quoad implying purpose, doubt, or expectation, take the Subjunctive, otherwise the Indicative.

1. Subjunctive: as, —

exspectās fortasse dum dīcat (Tusc. ii. 17), you are waiting perhaps for him to say (till he say).

Aenēān morando sustinuit dum genitor protectus abīret (Æn. x. 800), he kept Æneas in check till his father cruft get away in safety.

Epamīnondās exercēbātur plūrimum luctando ad eum fīnem quoad stāns complectī posset atque contendere (Nep. Epam. 2), Epaminondas trained himself in wrestling so far as to be able to grapple standing and fight (in that way).

2. Indicative (cf. a, below): as, —

hoc feci dum licuit, intermisi quoad non licuit (Phil. iii. 33), I did this so long as it was allowed, I discontinued it so long as it was not.

quoad potuit restitit (Cat. Maj. 11), he resisted as long as he could.

NOTE 1. - Quamdiū takes the Indicative only: as, -

sē oppidō tam diū tenuit quamdiū in provinciā Parthī fuērunt (Fam. xii. 19), he kept himself within the town so long as the Parthians were in the province.

Note 2. — For dum and dummodo introducing a proviso, see § 314.

a. Dum in the sense of while usually takes the Present Indicative to indicate a continued action in past time, if that time is not contrasted with any other (§ 276 e. and note): as,—

dum haec geruntur (B. G. i. 46), while this was going on.

REMARK. — With all temporal particles the Subjunctive is often found depending on some other principle of construction. (See Intermediate Clauses below, §§ 340 ff.)

### II. SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

**329.** A clause used as a noun is called a Substantive Clause.

A Substantive Clause may be used as the Subject or Object of a verb, as an Appositive or as a Predicate Nominative (or Accusative).

Note. — Many ideas which in English take the form of an abstract noun may be rendered by a substantive clause in Latin. Thus, he demanded an investigation, may be postulabat ut quaestio haberetur. The common English expression for with the infinitive also corresponds to a Latin substantive clause: as, it remains for me to speak of the piratic war, relicum est ut de bello dicam piratico.

REMARK. — When a Substantive Clause is used as Subject, the verb to which it is subject is called *impersonal*, and the sign of the construction in English is the so-called *expletive* IT.

Substantive Clauses are classified as follows : -

- 1. INFINITIVE CLAUSES: { a. Infinitive clause as Subject (§ 270). } b. Infinitive clause as Object (§ 330. B).
- 2. SUBJUNCTIVE CLAUSES:
  (ut, nē, quō, quīn, quōninus).

  (a. Of Purpose (command, wish, fear) (§ 331).
  (b. Of Result (happen, effect, hinder) (§ 332).
- 3. INDICATIVE CLAUSE with quod: Fact, Specification, Feeling.
- 4. INDIRECT QUESTIONS: Subjunctive, introduced by Interrogative Word.

#### z. Infinitive Clauses.

- **330.** A. The Infinitive with Subject-Accusative may be used as the *subject* of **sum** and of many impersonal verbs (see § 270).
- B. The Infinitive with Subject-Accusative is used as the object —
- 1. Of all verbs and expressions of knowing, thinking, telling, and perceiving (Indirect Discourse) (§ 272).

mē spērō līberātum [esse] metū (Tusc. ii. 67), I trust I have been freed from fear.

- 2. Of iubeo and veto, and rarely of other verbs of commanding, requesting, admonishing, and the like (§ 331. a). Thus,
  - vetuëre [bona] reddī, vetuëre in pūblicum redigī (Liv. ii. 5), they forbade the return of the goods (that they be returned), etc.
  - Labienum iugum montis adscendere iubet (B. G. i. 21), he orders Labienus to ascend the ridge of the hill.
  - 3. Sometimes of verbs of wishing (§ 331. b): as,—
  - iūdicem mē esse non doctorem volo (Or. 117), I wish to be a judge, not a teacher.

REMARK. — The Infinitive with Subject-Accusative, though not strictly a Clause, is equivalent to one, and may be treated as such.

- a. If the main verb is changed to the Passive, —
- 1. The subject of the infinitive becomes *nominative*, and the infinitive is retained (*Personal Construction*): as,—
  - \*mons dicitur ab hostibus teneri, the hill is said to be held by the enemy. Labienus iugum montis adscendere iubētur, Labienus is ordered to ascend the ridge of the hill.
- 2. The passive is used *impersonally*, and the clause retained as its subject (*Impersonal Construction*):—

dicitur montem ab hostibus tenērī, it is said that the hill is held by the enemy.

b. I. Verbs of saying, thinking, etc., take in the Passive either the Personal or the Impersonal construction. But the Personal is more common and is regular with the tenses of incomplete action. Thus,—

beate vixisse videor (Læl. 15), I seem to have lived happily.

Epamīnondās fidibus praeclārē cecinisse dīcitur (Tusc. i. 4), Epaminondas is said to have played excellently on the lyre.

- 2. Iubeo and veto always take the personal construction : as, -
- iūssus es renūntiārī consul (Phil. ii. 79), you were under orders to be declared consul.
- Nõlānī mūrōs portāsque adīre vetitī sunt (Liv. xxiii. 16), the men of Nola were forbidden to go to visit the walls and gates.
- c. In the compound tenses of verbs of saying, etc., the impersonal construction is more common, and with the gerundive is regular: as,—

- trāditum est etiam Homērum caecum fuisse (Tusc. v. 114), it is a tradition, too, that Homer was blind.
- ubi tyrannus est, ibi non vitiosam, sed dicendum est plane nullam esse rempublicam (Rep. iii. 43), where there is a tyrant, it must be said, not that the Commonwealth is evil, but that it does not exist at all.
- d. The poets and later writers extend the personal use of the passive to verbs which are not properly *verba sentiendi*, etc.: as,—colligor dominae placuisse (Ov. Am. ii. 6, 61), it is gathered [from this

memorial] that I pleased my mistress.

- e. The Infinitive with a subject may depend on any word implying speech or thought, though not strictly a verb of saying, etc.
- f. Verbs of promising, hoping, expecting, threatening, swearing, and the like, regularly take the construction of Indirect Discourse, contrary to the English idiom: as,
  - minātur sēsē abīre (Plaut. Asin. 604), he threatens to go away. [Direct: abeō, I am going away.]
  - ex quibus spērant sē māximum frūctum esse captūros (Læl. 79), from which they hope to gain the utmost advantage. [Direct: capiēmus.]

Note. — These verbs, however, often take a simple Complementary Infinitive. Thus, — pollicentur obsides dare (B. G. iv. 21), they promise to give hostages.

#### 2. Clauses of Purpose.

Note. — Clauses of Purpose may be used substantively (1) as the Object of verbs of admonishing, etc. (§ 331); (2) as the Subject of these same verbs in the passive (§ 331. h), and of impersonal verbs and verbal phrases (§ 331. i); (3) in apposition with a substantive, or as predicate nominative, etc.

331. Substantive Clauses of Purpose with ut (negative nē) are used as the object of all verbs denoting an action directed toward the future.

Such are, verbs meaning to admonish, ask, bargain, command, decree, determine, permit, persuade, resolve, urge, and wish. Thus,—

¹ Such verbs or verbal phrases are id agō, ad id veniō, caveō (nē), cēnseō, cōgō, concēdō, cōnstituō, cūrō, dēcernō, ēdīcō, flāgitō, hortor, imperō, īnstō, mandō, moneō, negōtium dō, operam dō, ōrō, persuādeō, petō, postulō, praecipiō, precor, prōnūntiō, quaerō, rogō, scīscō, timeō, videō, volō.

his ut conquirerent imperavit (B. G. i. 28), he ordered them to search.

persuadet Castico ut regnum occuparet (B. G. i. 3), he persuades Casticus
to usurp royal power.

a. Iubeō, order, and vetō, forbid, take the Infinitive with Subject Accusative (§ 330. B. 2): as,—

līberos ad sē addūcī iūssit (B. G. ii. 5), he ordered the children to be brought to him.

ab opere legatos discedere vetuerat (id. 20), he had forbidden the lieutenants to leave the work.

NOTE I. — Other verbs of commanding, etc., may take the Infinitive: as, —

haec facere imperātum est, orders were given to do this.

res monet cavere (Sall. Cat. 52), the occasion warns us to be on our guard.

- b. Verbs of wishing take either the Subjunctive or the Infinitive. The Infinitive is more common when the subject remains the same; the Subjunctive, when it changes. Thus,—
  - Subject of dependent verb same as that of main verb: —
    quos non tam ulcisci studeo quam sanare (Cat. ii. 17), whom I do not care
    so much to punish as to cure.
  - Subject of dependent verb different from that of main verb: —
    cupiō ut impetret (Plaut. Capt. 102), I wish he may get it.
    mallem Cerberum metuerēs (Tusc. i. 12), I would rather you feared
    Cerberus.

Note. — Volo and cupio, however, tend to take the Accusative and Infinitive rather than the Subjunctive, even when the subject changes. When it remains the same, the subject accusative is rarely found. Thus, —

iūdicem mē esse, non doctorem volo (Or. 117), I wish to be a judge, not a teacher.

cupiō mē esse clēmentem (Cat. i. 4), I desire to be merciful. [But regularly, cupiō esse clēmēns (see § 271. a).]

c. Verbs of permitting take either the Subjunctive or the Infinitive. Patior takes regularly the Infinitive with Subject Accusative; so often sino. Thus,—

permīsit ut partēs faceret (De Or. ii. 366), permitted him to make divisions. vīnum importārī non sinunt (B. G. iv. 2), they do not allow wine to be imported.

d. Verbs of determining, decreeing, resolving, bargaining take either the Subjunctive or the Infinitive: as,—

constituerant ut L. Bestia quereretur (Sall. Cat. 43), they had determined that Lucius Bestia should complain.

proeliö supersedere statuit (B. G. ii. 8), he determined to refuse battle.

NOTE I. — Different verbs of these classes with the same meaning vary in their construction. For verbs of *bargaining* with the Gerundive, see § 294. d.

NOTE 2. — Verbs of decreeing and voting often take the Infinitive of the Second Periphrastic conjugation: as, —

Rēgulus captīvōs reddendōs [esse] non cēnsuit (Off. i. 39), Regulus voted that the captives should not be returned. [He said, in giving his formal opinion: captīvī non reddendī sunt.]

e. I. Verbs of caution and effort take the Subjunctive with ut. But conor, try, usually takes the Complementary Infinitive as,—

cūrā ut quam prīmum intellegam (Fam. xiii. 10), let me know as soon as possible (take care that I may understand).

dant operam ut habeant (Sall. Cat. 41), they take pains to have (give their attention that, etc.).

sī trānsīre conārentur (B. G. i. 8), if they should try to cross.

Note. - Conor si also occurs (cf. miror si, etc., § 333. b. Rem.).

2. Verbs denoting an effort to hinder take either (1) a Subjunctive clause with quōminus or nē, or (2) the Infinitive: as,—

non deterret sapientem mors quominus . . . (Tusc. i. 91), death does not prevent the wise man from, etc.

në facerem impedivit (Fat. 1), prevented me from doing.

prohibet accedere (Caec. 46), prevents him from approaching (to approach).

Note. — For verbs of hindering negatived (not to hinder), see § 332. g.

f. Verbs of fearing take the Subjunctive, with ne affirmative and ne non or ut negative. Thus,—

timeo ne Verres fecerit (Verr. v. 3), I fear that Verres has done, etc. vereor ut tibi possim concedere (De Or. i. 35), I fear [that] I cannot grant you.

Note. — In this use ne is commonly to be translated by that or lest, ut and ne non by that not.

REMARK. — With some verbs of the above classes ut is often omitted. So generally after verbs of wishing, necessity, permission, after dic, fac, and often in Indirect Discourse after verbs of commanding, etc.: as, —

volo ames (Att. ii. 10), I wish you to love, etc.

mē ipsum amēs oportet (Fin. ii. 85), vou ought to love me.

Mnesthea vocat, classem aptent socii (Æn. iv. 289), he calls Mnestheus [and orders that] his comrades should make ready the fleet (cf. § 339).

Note. — Similarly ne is omitted after cave in Prohibitions (cf. § 269. a).

g. With any verbs of the above classes the poets may use the Infinitive instead of an object clause: as, —

hortamur farī (Æn. ii. 74), we urge [him] to speak. nē quaere docērī (id. vi. 614), seek not to be told.

h. A substantive clause of Purpose used as the object of a verb becomes the subject when that verb is put in the passive. Thus,—

imperatum est ut iter facerent, it was ordered that they should march. permissum est ut irent, permission was given that they should go.

i. The impersonals licet and oportet take as subject either a Substantive clause of Purpose or an Infinitive with or without subject-accusative. Thus, —

licet me îre, it is allowed me to go. querămur licet (Cæc. 41), we are allowed to complain.

NOTE 1. — The Subjunctive with oportet omits ut, except in later writers (see § 331. f. Rem.).

NOTE 2. — Licet may take the Subjunctive, usually without ut, to denote concession (see § 313.  $\delta$ ).

Note 3.—Licet may take (1) the Subjunctive; (2) the Simple Infinitive; (3) the Infinitive with Subject Accusative; or (4) the Dative and the Infinitive. Thus, I may go is licet eam, licet īre, licet mē īre, or licet mihi īre.

#### 3. Clauses of Result.

Note. — Clauses of Result may be used substantively, (1) as the object of facio, etc. (§ 332); (2) as the subject of these same verbs in the passive, as well as of other verbs and verbal phrases (§ 332. a, d); (3) in apposition with another substantive, or as predicate nominative, etc. (see § 332. f).

332. Substantive Clauses of Result with ut (negative ut non) are used as the object of verbs denoting the accomplishment of an effort.

Such are especially facio and its compounds (efficio, conficio, etc.). Thus, —

- efficiam ut intellegătis (Cluent. 7), I will make you understand (lit. effect that you, etc.). [So faciam ut intellegătis (id. 4).]
- commeātūs ut portārī posset efficiēbat (B. G. ii. 5), made it possible that supplies could be brought.
- a. Substantive Clauses of Result are used as the Subject —
- I. Of passive verbs denoting the accomplishment of an effort: as,
  - impetrātum est ut in senātū recitārentur (litterae) (B. C. i. 1), they succeeded in having the letter read in the senate (it was brought about that, etc.).
- 2. Of Impersonals meaning it happens, it remains, it follows, it is necessary, it is added, and the like: ab,
  - accidit ut esset lūna plēna (B. G. iv. 29), it happened to be full moon (it happened that it was, etc.). [Here ut esset is subject of accidit.]
  - reliqua est quarta virtus ut sit ipsa frugalitas (Tusc. iii. 17), it remains that the fourth virtue is thrift. [So also restat.]
- b. A result clause, with or without ut, frequently follows quam, after a comparative (but see § 336. c. note 2): as,
  - perpessus est omnia potius quam indicāret (Tusc. ii. 52), he endured all rather than betray, etc.
- c. A result clause, with or without ut, is often used elliptically, in exclamatory questions. The question may be introduced by the interrogative -ne. Thus,
  - quamquam quid loquor? të ut ülla rës frangat (Cat. i. 22), yet why do I speak? [the idea] that anything should bend you!
  - egone ut të interpellem (Tusc. ii. 42), what, I interrupt you? ego të vidëre nöluerim (O. Fr. i. 3, 1), I unwilling to see you?
- REMARK. The Infinitive, in exclamations (§ 274), usually refers to something actually occurring; the Subjunctive, to something contemplated.
- d. The phrase tantum abest, it is so far [from being the case], regularly takes two clauses of result with ut; one is substantive, the subject of abest; the other is adverbial, correlative with tantum. Thus,
  - tantum abest ut nostra mīrēmur, ut usque eō difficilēs āc mōrōsī sīmus, ut nōbīs nōn satisfaciat ipse Dēmosthenēs (Or. 104), so far from admiring my own works, I am difficult and captious to that degree, that not Demosthenes himself satisfies me. [Here the first ut-clause is the subject of abest (§ 332. a); the second, a result clause, after tantum (§ 319); and the third, after usque eō.]

- e. The expressions facere ut, committere ut, with the subjunctive, often form a periphrasis for the simple verb: as,
  - invītus fēcī ut Flāminium ē senātū ēicerem (Cat. Maj. 42), it was with reluctance that I expelled Flaminius from the senate.
- f. Rarely, a thought or an idea is considered as a result, and is expressed by the subjunctive with ut instead of the accusative and infinitive. (§ 336. 1). In this case a demonstrative usually precedes: as,
  - praeclārum illud est, ut eos . . . amēmus (Tusc. iii. 73), this is a noble thing, that we should love, etc.
  - vērīsimile non est ut ille anteponeret (Verr. iv. 11), it is not likely that he preferred.
- g. A Relative clause of Result with quin is used with verbs or other expressions of hindering and the like when these are negatived. Thus,
  - facere non possum quin . . . (Att. xii. 27), I cannot avoid, etc. ut nulla re impedirer quin (Att. iv. 2, 6), that I might be hindered by nothing from, etc.
- NOTE I.— The negative may be expressed (as in the examples above) or merely implied (as in quis impedit quin eam, who (i.e. nobody) hinders me from going?).
- REMARK. This usage is found especially with the phrase non dubito, I do not doubt, and similar expressions: as,
  - non dubitābat quīn eī crēderēmus (Att. vi. 2, 3), he did not doubt that we believed him.
- NOTE 2. Non dubito, in the sense of *I do not hesitate*, commonly takes the Infinitive, but sometimes quin with the subjunctive. Thus,
  - nec dubitare illum appellare sapientem (Læl. 1), and not to hesitate to call him a sage.
  - dubitandum non existimāvit quīn proficiscerētur (B. G. ii. 2), he did not think he ought to hesitate to set out.
- h. Some verbs and expressions may be used either as verbs of saying or as verbs of commanding or effecting. Hence they are variously construed. Thus,
  - res ipsa monebat tempus esse (Att. x. 8), the thing itself warned that it was time. [Cf. monere ut, warn to do something.]

hoc volunt persuadere, non interire animas (B. G. vi. 14), they wish to convince that souls do not perish.

huic persuadet uti ad hostes transeat (B. G. iii. 18), persuades him to pass over to the enemy.

Note. — The infinitive with subject-accusative in this construction is Indirect Discourse, and is to be distinguished from the simple infinitive sometimes found with these verbs instead of a subjunctive clause.

### 4. Indicative with Quod.

**333.** A peculiar form of Substantive Clause consisting of quod causal with the Indicative is used when the statement is regarded as a fact: as,—

alterum est vitium, quod quidam nimis māgnum studium conferunt (Off. i. 19), it is another fault that some bestow too much zeal, etc. [Here ut conferant could be used, meaning that some should bestow; or the accusative and infinitive, meaning to bestow (abstractly); quod makes it a fact that men do bestow, etc.]

quod rediit nobis mīrābile vidētur (Off. iii. 111), that he (Regulus) returned seems wonderful to us.

NOTE. — The clause with quod may be used as subject, as object, as appositive, etc., but it is commonly either the subject or in apposition with the subject.

a. In colloquial language, the clause with quod sometimes appears as an accusative of specification, corresponding to the English whereas (cf. § 326. a): as,—

quod de domo scribis (Fam. xiv. 2, 3), as to what you write of the house.

b. Verbs of feeling and the expression of feeling take either quod, quia (Causal), or the accusative and infinitive (Indirect Discourse): as,—

quod scrībis . . . gaudeō (Q. F. iii. 1, 9), I am glad that you write. quae perfecta esse vehementer laetor (Rosc. Am. 136), I greatly rejoice that this is finished.

REMARK. — Miror and similar expressions are sometimes followed by a clause with si, apparently substantive, but really a protasis (cf. § 331. c. 1. note). Thus, —

mīror sī quemquam amīcum habēre potuit (Læl. 54), I wonder if he could ever have a friend. [Originally, If this is so, I wonder at it.]

### 5. Indirect Questions.

Note. — An Indirect Question is any sentence or clause introduced by an Interrogative word (pronoun, adverb, etc.), which is itself the subject or object of a verb, or depends on any expression implying uncertainty or doubt. In grammatical form, exclamatory sentences are not distinguished from interrogative.

334. (Rule 82.) An Indirect Question takes its verb in the Subjunctive: as,

quid ipse sentiam exponam (Div. i. 10), I will explain what I think.
[Direct: quid sentio.]

rogat mē quid sentiam, he asks me what I think. [Cf. rogat mē sententiam, he asks me my opinion.]

NOTE. — An Indirect Question may be the subject of a verb, the direct object, the secondary object, or an appositive.

The tenses in Indirect Questions follow the rules for sequence of tenses.

a. Indirect Questions referring to future time take the subjunctive of the First Periphrastic conjugation: as,—

prospicio qui concursus futuri sint (Div. in Caec. 42), I foresee what throngs there will be. [Direct: qui erunt?]

b. The Deliberative Subjunctive (see § 268 and examples) remains unchanged in an Indirect Question, except in tense: as,—

[quaeritur] utrum Carthāgō dīruātur, an Carthāginiēnsibus reddātur (De Inv. i. 17), [the question is] shall Carthage be destroyed, or restored to the Carthaginians.

incertō quid peterent aut vītārent (Liv. xxviii. 36), since it was doubtful (abl. abs.) what they should seek or shun.

c. In colloquial usage and in poetry the subject of an Indirect Question is often attracted into the main clause as object (accusative of anticipation): as,—

nosti Marcellum quam tardus sit (Fam. viii. 10), you know how slow Marcellus is. [For nosti quam tardus sit Marcellus. Cf. I know thee who thou art.]

REMARK. — In some cases the *Object of anticipation* becomes Subject by a change of *voice*, and an apparent mixture of relative and interrogative construction is the result: as. —

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- quidam saepe in parvā pecūniā perspiciuntur quam sint levēs (Læl. 63), it is often seen, in a trifling matter of money, how unprincipled some people are (some people are often seen through, how unprincipled they are).
- d. Indirect Questions often take the Indicative in poetry: as, non reputat quid laboris est (Plaut. Am. 172), he does not consider what a task it is.
- e. A few interrogative expressions are used parenthetically in an indefinite sense and do not take a subjunctive. Such are —

nesciō quis (and kindred forms), I know not who, somebody or other, etc. mīrum (nīmīrum) quam, marvellously (marvellous how).

Examples are: -

quī istam nesciō quam indolentiam māgnopere laudant (Tusc. iii. 12), who greatly extol that freedom from pain, whatever that is.
mīrum quantum prōfuit (Liv. ii. 1), it helped prodigiously.

f. An indirect question is occasionally introduced by sī in the sense of whether (like if in English, cf. § 333. b. Rem.): as,—

circumfunduntur hostes sī quem aditum reperīre possent (B. G. vi. 37), the enemy pour round [to see] if they can find entrance.

NOTE. — This is strictly a Protasis, but usually no Apodosis is thought of, and the clause is virtually an Indirect Question.

g. Forsit, forsitan, forsan, fortasse, fortasse an, perhaps, are often followed by the Subjunctive: as, —

forsitan quaerātis quī iste terror sit (Rosc. Am. 5), you may perhaps inquire what this alarm is.

NOTE. — The Subjunctive Clause in this case was originally an Indirect Question. Thus, it would be a chance whether, etc.

### III. INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

335. A Direct Quotation gives the exact words of the original speaker or writer.

An Indirect Quotation adapts the words of the speaker or writer to the construction of the sentence in which they are quoted.

# I. FORMAL INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

- **336.** I. Verbs and other expressions of *knowing*, thinking, telling, and perceiving 1 govern the Indirect Discourse.
- 2. (RULE 83.) In the Indirect Discourse the main clause of a Declaratory Sentence is put in the Infinitive with Subject Accusative. All Subordinate clauses take the Subjunctive. Thus,—

spērō mē līberātum [esse] dē metū (Tusc. ii. 67), I trust I have been freed from fear.

[dīcit] esse nonnūllos quorum auctoritās plūrimum valeat (B. G. i. 17), he says there are some whose influence most prevails. [In direct discourse: sunt nonnūllī...valet.]

NOTE 1.—In the statement of all speech or thought, the Romans tended to use the Indirect Discourse, etc., with verbs of the classes mentioned, but: inquam, said I (etc.), is appropriated to the Direct Discourse except in poetry.

NOTE 2.—The verb of saying, etc., is often not expressed, but implied in some word or in the general drift of the sentence: as,—

orantes ut urbibus saltem—iam enim agros deploratos esse—opem senatus ferret (Liv. xli. 6), praying that the senate would at least bring aid to the cities—for the fields [they said] were already given up as lost.

# r. Subject Accusative.

a. 1. The Subject of the Infinitive in Indirect Discourse must regularly be expressed, even if it is wanting in the direct: as,—

örātor sum, I am an orator; dīcit sē esse örātörem, he says he is an orator.

Note. — But the subject is often omitted, if easily understood: as, — ignoscere imprudentiae dixit (B. G. iv. 27), he said he pardoned their rashness.

<sup>1</sup> Such are: (1) knowing, sciō, cōgnōscō, compertum habeō, etc.; (2) thinking, putō, exīstimō, arbitror, etc.; (3) telling, dīcō, nūntiō, referō, polliceor, prōmīttō, certiōrem faciō, etc.; (4) perceiving, sentiō, comperiō, videō, audiō, etc. So in general any word that denotes thought or mental and visual perception or their expression may govern the Indirect Discourse.

REMARK. — After a relative, or quam (than), if the verb would be the same as that of the main clause, it is usually omitted, and its subject is attracted into the accusative: as, —

- të suspicor eïsdem rebus quibus më ipsum commoveri (Cat. Maj. 1), I suspect that you are disturbed by the same things as I.
- 2. When the verb of saying, etc., becomes passive, the construction may be either Personal or Impersonal (see § 330. a-d).

#### 2. Subordinate Clauses.

- b. A subordinate clause merely explanatory or containing statements which are regarded as true independently of the quotation takes the Indicative: as,
  - quis neget haec omnia quae vidēmus deorum potestāte administrārī (Cat. iii. 21), who can deny that all these things we see are ruled by the power of the gods?
  - cūius ingeniō putābat ea quae gesserat, posse celebrārī (Arch. 20), by whose genius he thought that those deeds which he had done could be celebrated. [Here the fact expressed by quae gesserat, though not explanatory, is felt to be true without regard to the quotation: quae gessisset would mean, what Marius claimed to have done.]
- NOTE. It often depends merely upon the feeling of the writer whether he shall use the Indicative or Subjunctive in such clauses (cf. §§ 340-342).
- c. Clauses introduced by a relative which is equivalent to a demonstrative with a conjunction are not properly subordinate, and hence take the Accusative and Infinitive in Indirect Discourse; as,—
  - Mārcellus requīsīsse dīcitur Archimēdem illum, quem cum audīsset interfectum permolestē tulisse (Verr. iv. 131), Marcellus is said to have sought for Archimedes, and when he heard that he was slain, to have been greatly distressed.
  - unumquemque nostrum censent philosophi mundi esse partem, ex quo [=et ex eo] illud nāturā consequi (Fin. iii. 64), the philosophers say that each one of us is a part of the universe, from which this naturally follows.
- NOTE I. Really subordinate clauses occasionally take this construction: as,
  - quemadmodum sī non dedātur obses pro rupto sē foedus habitūrum, sīc deditam inviolātam ad suos remīssūrum (Liv. ii. 13), [he says] as in case the hostage is not given up he shall consider the treaty as broken, so if given up he will return her unharmed to her friends.

NOTE 2. — The infinitive construction is regularly continued after a comparative with quam: as, —

addit sē prius occīsum īrī ab eō quam mē violātum īrī (Att. ii. 20, 2), he adds that he himself will be killed by him, before I shall be injured.

Note 3. — The Subjunctive with or without ut also occurs with quam (see  $\S$  332. b).

d. A subordinate clause in the Indirect Discourse occasionally takes the Indicative when the fact is emphasized: as,—

factum ēius hostis perīculum . . . cum, Cimbrīs et Teutonīs . . . pulsīs, non minorem laudem exercitus quam ipse imperātor meritus vidēbātur (B. G. i. 40), that a trial of this enemy had been made when, etc., the army seemed, etc.

### 3. Tenses of the Infinitive.

**336.** A. The Present, the Perfect, or the Future Infinitive is used in Indirect Discourse, according as the time indicated is *present*, *past*, or *future*, with reference to the verb of *saying*, etc., by which the Indirect Discourse is introduced. Thus, —

Note 1.— All varieties of past time are usually expressed in Indirect Discourse by the Perfect Infinitive, which may stand for the Imperfect, the Perfect, or the Pluperfect Indicative of the Direct. But sometimes continued or repeated action in past time is expressed by the Present Infinitive, which in such cases stands for the Present Indicative of the Direct Discourse, and is often called the *Imperfect Infinitive* (so regularly after memin): thus,—

tē meminī dīcere, I remember that you said. [Direct : dīcēbās.]

Note 2. — For various ways of expressing the Future Infinitive, see § 147. c.

### 4. Tenses of the Subjunctive.

336. B. The tenses of the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse follow the rule for the Sequence of Tenses (§ 286). They depend for their sequence on the verb of saying, etc., by which the Indirect Discourse is introduced.

Thus in the sentence, dixit se Romam iturum ut consulem videret, he said he should go to Rome in order that he might see the consul, videret follows the sequence of dixit without regard to the Future Infinitive, iturum [esse], on which it directly depends.

NOTE I. — This rule applies not only to the subjunctive in subordinate clauses in indirect discourse, but also to that which stands for the imperative, etc. (see examples in § 339), and to that in questions (§ 338).

NOTE 2.— A subjunctive depending on a Perfect Infinitive is commonly in the Imperfect or Pluperfect, even if the verb of saying, etc., is in a primary tense (cf. § 287. i). Thus,—

tantum pröfēcisse vidēmur ut ā Graecīs nē verbörum quidem cöpiā vincerēmur (N. D. i. 8), we seem to have advanced so far that even in fullness of words we ARE not surpassed by the Greeks

a. The Present and Perfect Subjunctive are often used in dependent clauses of the Indirect Discourse even when the verb of saying, etc., is in a secondary tense: as,—

dīcēbant . . . totidem Nerviōs (pollicērī) quī longissimē absint (B. G. ii. 4), they said that the Nervii, who live farthest off, promised as many.

Note. — This construction comes from the tendency of language to refer all time in narration to the time of the speaker (Repraesentātiō). In the course of a long passage in the Indirect Discourse the tenses of the subjunctive often vary, sometimes following the Sequence, and sometimes affected by Repraesentātiō. For examples see B. G. i. 13, vii. 20, etc.

### 5. Conditions in Indirect Discourse.

- **337.** Conditional sentences in Indirect Discourse are expressed as follows:—
- 1. The Protasis, being a *subordinate clause*, is always in the Subjunctive.
- 2. The Apodosis, if independent and not hortatory or optative, is always in some form of the Infinitive.

a. The Present Subjunctive in the apodosis of less vivid future conditions (§ 307. b) becomes the Future Infinitive. Thus there is no distinction between more or less vivid future conditions in the Indirect Discourse.

Examples of conditional sentences in Indirect Discourse are-

- I. Simple Present Condition (§ 306).
- (dīxit) sī ipse populō Rōmānō nōn praescrīberet quemadmodum suō iūre ūterētur, nōn oportēre sēsē ā populō Rōmānō in suō iūre impedīrī (B. G. i. 36), he said that if he did not dictate to the Roman people how they should use their rights, he ought not to be interfered with by the Roman people in the exercise of his rights. [Direct: sī nōn praescrībō...nōn oportet.]
- praedicāvit . . . sī pāce ūtī velint, inīcum esse, etc. (B. G. i. 44), he asserted that if they wished to enjoy peace, it was unfair, etc. [Direct: sī volunt . . . est. Present tense kept by Repraesentātiō (§ 336. B. a. note).]
- 2. Simple Past Condition (§ 306.)
- non dicam në illud quidem si maximë in culpa fuerit Apollonius, tamen in hominem honestissimae civitatis honestissimum tam graviter animadverti causa indicta non oportuisse (Verr. v. 20), I will not say this either, that, even if Apollonius was greatly in fault, still an honorable man ought not to have been punished so severely, etc. [Direct: si fuit . . . non oportuit.]
- 3. Future Conditions (§ 307).
- Aeduīs sē obsidēs redditūrum non esse, neque eīs . . . bellum illātūrum, sī in eo manērent, quod convēnisset, stīpendiumque quotannīs penderent: sī id non fēcissent, longē eīs frāternum nomen populī Romānī abfutūrum (B. G. i. 36), he said that he would not give up the hostages to the Ædui, but would not make war upon them if they observed the agreement, etc., and paid tribute yearly; but if they should not do this, the name of brothers to the Roman people would be far from aiding them. [Direct: reddam . . inferam . . . sī manēbunt . . . pendent: sī non fēcerint . . . aberit.]
- id Datamēs ut audīvit, sēnsit, sī in turbam exīsset ab homine tam necessāriō sē relictum, futūrum [esse] ut cēterī cōnsilium sequantur (Nep. Dat. 6), if it should get abroad that he had been abandoned by a man so closely connected with him, everybody else would follow his example. [Direct: sī exierit . . . sequentur.]
- b. In changing a Condition contrary to fact (§ 308) into the Indirect Discourse, the following points require notice:—

- 1. The Protasis always remains unchanged in tense.
- 2. If the verb of the Apodosis is active it takes a peculiar infinitive form, made by combining the Participle in -urus with fuisse.

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- 3. If it is passive or has no supine stem, the periphrasis tuturum tuisse ut (with the Imperfect Subjunctive) must be used.
  - 4. An Indicative in the Apodosis becomes Perfect Infinitive.

Examples are —

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- nec sē superstitem fīliae futūrum fuisse, nisi spem ulcīscendae mortis ēius in auxiliō commīlitōnum habuisset (Liv. iii. 50), and that he should not now be a survivor, etc., unless he had had hope, etc. [Direct: non superstes essem, nisi habuissem.]
- quorum sī aetās potuisset esse longīnquior, futūrum fuisse ut omnibus perfectīs artibus hominum vīta ērudīrētur (Tusc. iii. 69), if life could have been longer, human existence would have been embellished by every art in its perfection. [Direct: ērudīta esset.]
- sī Cn. Pompēius prīvātus esset, tamen erat dēligendus (Manil. 50), if P. were a private citizen, still he ought to be chosen, would become dēligendum fuisse.
- NOTE I.—In Indirect Discourse Present Conditions contrary to fact are not distinguished in the *apodosis* from Past, but the *protasis* may keep them distinct.
- NOTE 2.—The periphrasis futurum fuisse ut is sometimes used from choice when there is no necessity for resorting to it.
- NOTE 3.— Very rarely the Future Infinitive is used in the Indirect Discourse to express the Apodosis of a Present Condition contrary to fact. Only four or five examples of this use occur in classic authors: as,—
  - Titurius clāmābat sī Caesar adesset neque Carnūtēs, etc., neque Eburōnēs tantā cum contemptione nostrī ad castra ventūros esse (B. G. v. 29), Titurius cried out that if Cæsar were present, neither would the Carnutes, etc., nor would the Eburones be coming to our camp with such contempt. [Direct: sī adesset . . . venīrent.]

### 6. Questions in Indirect Discourse.

**338.** (Rule 84.) In the Indirect Discourse a *real* question, asking for an answer, is generally put in the Subjunctive: a *rhetorical* question, asked for effect and implying its own answer, in the Infinitive. Thus,—

quid sibi vellet? cūr in suās possēssionēs venīret (B. G. i. 44), what did he want? why did he come into his territories? [Real question. Direct: quid vīs? cūr venīs?]

num recentium iniūriārum memoriam [sē] dēpōnere posse (id. i. 14), could he lay aside the memory of recent wrongs? [Rhetorical Question. Direct: num possum?]

Note 1.— No sharp line can be drawn between the Subjunctive and the Infinitive in questions in the Indirect Discourse. Whether the question is to be regarded as *rhetorical* or *real* often depends merely on the writer's point of view. Thus,—

utrum partem rēgnī petītūrum esse, an tōtum ēreptūrum (Liv. xlv. 19), will you ask part of the regal power (he said), or seize the whole?

NOTE 2.—Questions coming immediately after a verb of asking are treated as Indirect Questions and take the Subjunctive (see § 334). This is true even when the verb of asking serves also to introduce a passage in the Indirect Discourse. The question may be either real or rhetorical.

NOTE 3. — For the use of tenses, see § 336. B, note 1.

a. A Deliberative Subjunctive in the Direct Discourse is always retained in the Indirect; as,—

cūr aliquōs ex suīs āmītteret (B. C. i. 72), why (thought he) should he lose some of his men? [Direct: cūr āmīttam?]

### 7. Commands in Indirect Discourse.

**339.** (Rule 85.) All Imperative forms of speech take the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse: as,—

reminiscerëtur veteris incommodī (B. G. i. 13), remember (said he) the ancient disaster. [Direct: reminiscere.]

finem faciat (id. 20), let him make an end. [Direct : fac.]

REMARK. — This rule applies not only to the Imperative of the direct discourse, but to the hortatory and the optative subjunctive as well.

NOTE 1. — Though these subjunctives stand for independent clauses of the direct discourse, they follow the rule for the sequence of tenses, being in fact dependent on the verb of saying, etc. (cf. §§ 286, 336. B, note 1).

Note 2. — A Prohibition in the Indirect Discourse is regularly expressed by ne with the Subjunctive, even when noli with the Infinitive would be used in the Direct: as,—

në perturbärentur (B. G. vii. 29), do not (he said) be troubled. [Direct: nölîte perturbārī. But sometimes nöllet is found in Ind. Disc.]

The following example illustrates some of the foregoing principles in a connected address:—

#### INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

Sī pācem populus Romānus cum Helvētiīs faceret, in eam partem itūros atque ibi futūros Helvētios, ubi eos Caesar constituisset atque esse voluisset: sīn bello perseguī persevērāret, reminiscerētur et veteris incommodi populi Romani, et pristinae virtūtis Helvētiorum. Ouod improviso unum pagum adortus esset, cum ei qui flümen tränsissent suis auxilium ferre non possent, ne ob eam rem aut suae māgnō opere virtūtī tribueret, aut ipsos despiceret: sē ita ā patribus māiōribusque suīs didicisse, ut magis virtūte quam dolō contenderent, aut însidiis niterentur. Ouārē nē commītteret, ut is locus ubi constitissent ex calamitate populi Romani et internecione exercitūs nomen caperet, aut memoriam proderet. - B. G. i. 13.

#### DIRECT DISCOURSE.

Sī pācem populus Rōmānus cum Helvētiīs faciet, in eam partem ībunt atque ibi erunt Helvētii, ubi eos tū constitueris atque esse volueris: sīn bellō persequī persevērābis, reminiscere [inquit] et veteris incommodī populī Romānī et prīstinae virtūtis Helvētiorum. Quod improviso unum pagum adortus es, cum ei qui flümen transierant suis auxilium ferre non possent, ne ob eam rem aut tuae māgnō opere virtūtī tribueris, aut nos despexeris: nos ita a patribus māioribusque nostrīs didicimus, ut magis virtūte quam dolō contendāmus, aut īnsidiīs nītāmur. Quare noli committere, ut hic locus ubi constitimus ex calamitate populi Romani et internecione exercitus nomen capiat, aut memoriam prodat.

# II. INTERMEDIATE CLAUSES.

**340.** A Subordinate clause takes the Subjunctive, (I) when it expresses the thought of some other person than the speaker or writer (*Informal Indirect Discourse*), or (2) when it is an integral part of a Subjunctive clause or equivalent Infinitive (*Attraction*).

### I. Informal Indirect Discourse.

- **341.** (Rule 86.) A subordinate clause takes the subjunctive when it expresses the thought of some other person than the writer or speaker. Thus,—
- a. In Subordinate clauses in formal indirect discourse (§ 336). So also in Informal Indirect Discourse in the following cases:—
- . b. When the clause depends upon another containing a wish, a command, or a question expressed indirectly, though not strictly in the form of Indirect Discourse: as,—

- animal sentit quid sit quod deceat (Off. i. 14), an animal feels what it is that is fit.
- hunc sibi ex animō scrūpulum, quī sē diēs noctēsque stimulet āc pungat, ut ēvellātis postulat (Rosc. Am. 6), he begs you to pluck from his heart this doubt that goads and stings him day and night.
- c. When the main clause of a quotation is merged in the verb of saying, or some modifier of it: as,
  - sī quid dē hīs rēbus dīcere vellet, fēcī potestātem (Cat. iii. 11), if he wished to say anything about these matters, I gave him a chance.
  - tulit de caede quae in Appia via facta esset (Milo 15), he passed a law concerning the murder which (in the language of the bill) took place in the Appian Way.
- d. When a reason or an explanatory fact is introduced by a relative or by quod (rarely quia) (see § 321). Thus,—

Paetus omnēs libros quos pater suus reliquisset mihi donāvit (Att. ii. 1, 12),

Pætus presented me all the books which (he said) his father had left.

REMARK. — Under this head even what the speaker himself thought elsewhere may have the Subjunctive. So with quod the verb of saying may be in the Subjunctive. (Especially non quia, etc. See § 321. Rem.)

- 2. Subjunctive of Integral Part (Attraction).
- **342.** (RULE 87.) A clause depending on a Subjunctive clause or an equivalent Infinitive will itself take the Subjunctive if regarded as an integral part of that clause: as,
  - imperat, dum rēs adiūdicētur, hominem ut adservent: cum iūdicātum sit, ad sē addūcant (Verr. iii. 55), he orders them, till the affair should be decided, to keep the man; when he is judged, to bring him to him. mos est Athēnīs laudārī in contione eos quī sint in proeliīs interfectī (Or. 151), it is the custom at Athens for those to be publicly eulogized who have been slain in battle. [Here laudārī ut laudentur.]
- a. But a dependent clause, closely connected grammatically with a Subjunctive or Infinitive clause, may still take the Indicative, if it is not regarded as a necessary logical part of that clause: as,
  - ne hostes, quod tantum multitudine poterant, suos circumvenire possent (B. G. ii. 8), lest the enemy, because they were so strong in numbers, should be able to surround his men.
- Note. The use of the Indicative serves to emphasize the fact, as true. But often no distinction between the two moods is perceptible.

#### IMPORTANT RULES OF SYNTAX.

- A noun used to describe another, and denoting the same person or thing, agrees with it in Case (§ 183).
- 2. Adjectives, adjective pronouns, and participles agree with their nouns in *gender*, *number*, and *case* (§ 186).
- 3. A Relative pronoun agrees with its Antecedent in *gender* and *number*, but its *case* depends on the construction of the clause in which it stands (§ 198).
- 4. A Finite Verb agrees with its Subject in number and person (§ 204).
- Superlatives (more rarely comparatives) denoting order and succession — also medius, cēterus, relicus — usually designate not what object, but what part of it, is meant (§ 193).
- 6. The Personal Pronouns have two forms for the genitive plural, that in -um being used partitively, and that in -i oftenest objectively (§ 194.b).
- The Reflexive pronoun (sē), and usually the corresponding
  possessive (suus), are used in some part of the predicate
  to refer to the subject of the sentence or clause (§ 196).
- 8. The Possessive Pronouns are used instead of the genitive of a personal pronoun: (1) always instead of the possessive genitive, (2) rarely instead of an objective genitive (§ 197. a).
- 9. A Possessive representing a genitive may have a genitive in apposition (§ 197. e).
- 10. Adverbs are used to modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs (§ 207).
- II. A question of simple fact, requiring the answer yes or NO, is formed by adding the enclitic -ne to the emphatic word (§ 210. a).
- 12. When the enclitic -ne is added to a negative word, as in nonne, an affirmative answer is expected. The particle num suggests a negative answer (§ 210. c).

- 13. The subject of a finite verb is in the Nominative ( $\S$  173.  $\alpha$ ).
- 14. A noun used to limit or define another, and not denoting the same person or thing, is put in the GENITIVE (§ 213).
- 15. The Subjective Genitive is used with a noun to denote (1) the Author or Owner, (2) the Source or the Material, (3) the Quality (§ 214).
- 16. Words denoting a Part are followed by the Genitive of the Whole to which the part belongs (*Partitive Genitive*, § 216).
- 17. Nouns of action, agency, and feeling govern the genitive of the object (Objective Genitive, § 217).
- 18. Adjectives denoting desire, knowledge, memory, fulness, power, sharing, guilt, and their opposites; verbals in āx, and participles in -ns, when used as adjectives, govern the Genitive (§ 218. a, b).
- 19. Verbs of remembering and forgetting, take the Genitive of the object when they are used of a continued state of mind, but the Accusative when used of a single act (§ 219).
- 20. Verbs of accusing, condemning, and acquitting take the Genitive of the Charge or Penalty (\$ 220).
- 21. The DATIVE is used of the object indirectly affected by an action (*Indirect Object*, § 224).
- 22. Most verbs signifying to favor, help, please, trust, and their contraries; also, to believe, persuade, command, obey, serve, resist, envy, threaten, pardon, and spare, take the Dative (§ 227).
- 23. Most verbs compounded with ad, ante, con, in, inter, ob, post, prae, pro, sub, super, and some with circum, take the Dative of the indirect object (\$ 228).
- 24. Many verbs of taking away, and the like, take the Dative (especially of a person) instead of the Ablative of Separation (§ 229).
- 25. The passive of intransitive verbs that govern the dative can be used only *impersonally* (§ 146. d). The dative is retained (cf. § 225. e).

- 26. The Dative is used with esse and similar words to denote Possession (§ 231).
- 27. The Dative of the Agent is used with the Gerundive, to denote the person on whom the necessity rests (§ 232).
- 28. The Dative is used to denote the Purpose or End, often with another Dative of the person or thing affected (§ 233. a).
- 29. The Dative is used with adjectives (and a few adverbs) of fitness, nearness, service, inclination, and their opposites (§ 234. a).
- 30. The Dative is often required, not by any particular word, but by the general meaning of the sentence (Dative of Reference, § 235).
- 31. The Direct Object of a transitive verb is put in the Accusa-TIVE (§ 237).
- 32. A neuter verb often takes an accusative of kindred meaning (§ 238).
- 33. Verbs of naming, choosing, appointing, making, esteeming, showing, and the like, may take a Predicate Accusative along with the direct object (§ 239. a).
- 34. Transitive verbs compounded with prepositions sometimes take (in addition to the direct object) a Secondary Object, originally governed by the preposition (§ 239. b).
- 35. Verbs of asking and teaching may take two Accusatives, one of the person, and the other of the thing (§ 239. c).
- 36. The subject of an Infinitive is in the Accusative (§ 173. 2).
- 37. Duration of Time and Extent of Space are expressed by the Accusative (§ 240. e).
- 38. Words signifying separation or privation are followed by the Ablative, with or without a preposition (Ablative of Separation, § 243).
- 39. Opus and usus, signifying *need*, are followed by the Ablative (\\$ 243. e).
- 40. The Ablative, with or without a preposition, is used to denote

- the source from which anything is derived or the material of which it consists (§ 244).
- 41. The Ablative, with or without a preposition, is used to express cause (§ 245).
- 42. Dignus and indignus; contentus, laetus, praeditus, etc., take the Ablative (§ 245. a).
- 43. The Voluntary Agent after a passive verb is put in the Ablative with a or ab (\$ 246).
- 44. The Comparative degree is followed by the Ablative (signifying THAN) without quam (\$ 247).
- 45. The Comparative may be followed by quam, than. When quam is used, the two things compared are put in the same case (§ 247. a).
- 46. The manner of an action is denoted by the Ablative, usually with cum, unless a limiting adjective is used with the noun (§ 248).
- 47. Accompaniment is denoted by the Ablative, regularly with cum (§ 248. a).
- 48. The Ablative is used to denote the *means* or *instrument* of an action (§ 248. c. 1).
- 49. The deponents, utor, fruor, fungor, potior, and vescor, with several of their compounds, govern the Ablative (§ 249).
- 50. With comparatives and words implying comparison the Ablative is used to denote the degree of difference (§ 250).
- 51. Quality is denoted by the Ablative with a modifier, usually an adjective or limiting genitive (§ 251).
- 52. Price is expressed by the Ablative (§ 252).
- 53. The Ablative of Specification denotes that in respect to which anything is or is done (§ 253).
- 54. A noun or pronoun, with a participle, may be put in the Ablative, to define the *time* or *circumstances* of an action (Ablative Absolute).
  - An adjective, or a second noun, may take the place of the participle in the ablative absolute construction (§ 255. a).

- 55. Time when, or within which, is expressed by the Ablative; time how long by the Accusative (§ 256).
- 56. The place from which is denoted by the Ablative with ab, de, or ex; the place to which (the end of motion) by the Accusative with ad or in (§ 258. c).
  - But names of towns or small islands from which, as also domus and rūs, are put in the Ablative without a preposition (§ 258.a).
  - So also names of towns or small islands to which, as also domus and rus, are put in the Accusative without a preposition (§ 258.b).
- 57. The place where is denoted by the Ablative with the preposition in (Locative Ablative); but names of towns and small islands are put in the Locative Case (§ 258.c).
  - The Locative Case is also preserved in domi, belli, militiae, humi, foris, rūri, terrā marique (§ 258. d).
- 58. The Infinitive, with or without a subject accusative, may be used with *est* and similar verbs (1) as the *subject*, (2) in *apposition* with the subject, or (3) as a *predicate nominative* (§ 270).
- 59. Verbs which imply another action of the same subject to complete their meaning take the Infinitive without a subject accusative, (Complementary Infinitive, § 271).
- 60. The Infinitive, with subject accusative, is used with verbs and other expressions of knowing, thinking, telling, and perceiving (Indirect Discourse, see § 272).
- 61. The Infinitive is often used for the Imperfect Indicative, in narration and takes a subject in the Nominative (Historical Infinitive, § 275).
- 62. SEQUENCE OF TENSES. In complex sentences, a primary tense in the main clause is followed by the Present or Perfect Subjunctive; a secondary tense by the Imperfect or Pluperfect (§ 286).
- 63. The tenses of the Infinitive denote time as present, past, or future with respect to the time of the verb on which they depend (§ 288).

- 64. Participles denote time as present, past, or future with respect to the time of the verb in their clause (§ 290).
- 65. The GERUND and the GERUNDIVE are used, in the oblique cases, in many of the constructions of nouns (§ 297).

For particulars, see §§ 298-301.

- 66. The Former Supine (in -um) is used after verbs of motion to express Purpose (§ 302).
- 67. The Latter Supine (in -\overline{u}) is used only with a few adjectives, with the nouns fas, nefas, and opus, and rarely with verbs, to denote an action in reference to which the quality is asserted (\§ 303).
- 68. The Hortatory Subjunctive is used to express an exhortation, a command, a concession, or a condition (§ 266).
- 69. The Subjunctive is used to express a wish. The present tense denotes the wish as possible, the imperfect as unaccomplished in present time, the pluperfect as unaccomplished in past time (Optative Subjunctive, § 267).
- 70. The Subjunctive is used in questions implying doubt, indignation, or an impossibility of the thing being done (Deliberative Subjunctive, § 268).
- 71. Prohibition is regularly expressed in classic prose (1) by nē with the second person of the Perfect Subjunctive,
  (2) by nōlī with the Infinitive, (3) by cave with the Present or Perfect Subjunctive (§ 269. a).
- 72. The Potential Subjunctive is used to denote an action not as actually performed, but as possible (§ 311. a).
- 73. In both Protasis and Apodosis (1) simple conditions take the present and past tenses of the Indicative; (2) future conditions take the future and future perfect Indicative and the present and perfect Subjunctive; (3) conditions contrary to fact take the imperfect and pluperfect Subjunctive (see §§ 306-311).
- 74. Dum, modo, dummodo, and tantum, introducing a Proviso, take the Subjunctive (§ 314).
- 75. FINAL clauses take the Subjunctive introduced by ut (utl),

- negative ne (ut nē), or by a Relative (pronoun or adverb) (§ 317).
- 76. Consecutive clauses take the Subjunctive introduced by ut, so that (negative, ut non), or by a Relative (pronoun or adverb) (§ 319).
- 77. A Relative clause with the Subjunctive expresses a characteristic of the antecedent (§ 320).
- 78. Dignus, indignus, aptus, and idoneus take a clause of result with a relative (rarely with ut) ( $\S$  320. f).
- 79. The Causal Particles quod, quia, and quoniam take the Indicative when the reason is given on the authority of the *speaker* or *writer*; the Subjunctive when the reason is given on the authority of *another* (§ 321).
- 80. Cum TEMPORAL, meaning when, takes the Imperfect and Pluperfect in the Subjunctive, other tenses in the Indicative (§ 325).
- 81. Cum CAUSAL or CONCESSIVE takes the Subjunctive (§ 326).
- 82. An Indirect Question takes its verb in the Subjunctive (§ 334).
- 83. In the Indirect Discourse the main clause of a Declaratory Sentence is put in the Infinitive with Subject Accusative. All subordinate clauses take the Subjunctive (§ 336.2).
- 84. In the Indirect Discourse a real question is generally put in the Subjunctive; a rhetorical question in the Infinitive (§ 338).
- 85. All Imperative forms of speech take the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse (§ 339).
- 86. A Subordinate clause takes the Subjunctive when it expresses the thought of some other person than the writer or speaker (*Informal Indirect Discourse*, § 341).
- 87. A clause depending on a Subjunctive clause or an equivalent Infinitive will itself take the Subjunctive if regarded as an *integral part* of that clause (Attraction, § 342).

#### 6. ORDER OF WORDS.

343. The Subject usually stands first in the sentence, the Predicate last. Thus, —

Pausāniās Lacedaemonius māgnus homō sed varius in omnī geneře vītae fuit.

The verb is usually placed *last of all*, after all its modifiers. But it is often made *last but one*, followed by some single word of the predicate.

- **344.** In *connected discourse* the word most prominent in the speaker's mind comes first, and so on in order of prominence, corresponding with the emphasis given in English by a graduated stress of voice.
- a. In any phrase the determining and most significant word comes first: as,—
  - 1. Adjective and Noun: -

omnēs hominēs decet, EVERY man ought (opposed to some who do not). Lūcius Catilīna nōbilī genere nātus fuit māgnā vī et animī et corporis sed ingeniō malō prāvōque (Sall. Cat. 5), Lucius Catiline was born of a NOBLE family, with GREAT force of mind and body, but with a NATURE that was evil and depraved. [Here the adjectives in the first part are the emphatic words, no antithesis between the nouns being as yet thought of; but in the second branch the noun is meant to be opposed to those before mentioned, and so takes the prominent place.]

2. Word with modifying case: -

lacrimā nihil citius arēscit (Inv. i. 109), nothing dries quicker than a TEAR. nēmō ferē laudis cupidus (De Or. i. 14), hardly any one desirous of GLORY (cf. Manil. 7, avidī laudis, EAGER for glory).

b. Numeral adjectives, adjectives of quantity, demonstrative, relative, and interrogative pronouns, and adverbs usually precede the word or words to which they belong: as,—

cum aliqua perturbatione (Off. i. 137), with some disturbance. hoc uno praestamus (De Or. i. 32), in this one thing we excel. ceterae fere artes. the other arts.

- c. When sum is used as the Substantive verb (see § 172. note), it regularly stands first, or at any rate before its subject: as,
  - est virī māgnī pūnīre sontēs (Off. i. 82), it is the duty of a great man to punish the guilty.
- d. The verb may come first, or have a prominent position either (1) because the *idea* in it is emphatic: as,
  - dicebat idem Cotta (Off. ii. 59), Cotta used to SAY the same thing (opposed to others' boasting).
  - idem fecit adulescens M. Antonius (id. ii. 49), the same thing was DONE by M. Antonius in his youth. [Opposed to dixi just before.]
  - (2) or because the statement of the idea is emphatic: as, -
  - nisi forte erunt digni calamitäte (Off. ii. 62), unless perchance they REALLY DESERVE their misfortune.
  - praesertim cum scribat (Panaetius) (id. iii. 8), especially when he DOES SAY (in his books). [Opposed to something omitted by him.]
  - (3) or because the tense only is emphatic: as, -
  - fuimus Trões, fuit Īlium (Æn. ii. 325), we have ceased to be Trojans, Troy is now no more.
- e. Often the connection of two emphatic phrases is brought about by giving the precedence to the most prominent part of each and leaving the less prominent to follow in inconspicuous places: as,
  - plūrēs solent esse causae (Off. i. 28), there are USUALLY SEVERAL reasons. quōs āmīsimus cīvīs eōs Mārtis vīs perculit (Marc. 17), WHAT fellow-citizens we have LOST, have been stricken down by the violence of war. māximās tibi omnēs grātiās agimus (Marc. 33), we ALL render you the WARMEST thanks.
- f. Antithesis between two pairs of ideas is indicated either (1) by placing the pairs in the same order (anaphora) or (2) in exactly the opposite order (chiasmus).
  - rērum cöpia verbörum cöpiam gignit (De Or. iii. 125), ABUNDANCE of MATTER produces COPIOUSNESS of EXPRESSION.
  - (2) lēgēs suppliciō improbōs afficiunt, dēfendunt āc tuentur bonōs (Leg. ii. 13), the laws visit punishments upon the Wicked, but the Good they defend and protect.
- g. A modifier of a phrase or some part of it is often embodied within the phrase (cf. a): as,
  - de communi hominum memoria (Tusc. i. 59), in regard to the UNIVERSAL memory of man.

- h. A favorite order with the poets is the *interlocked*, by which the attribute of one pair comes between the parts of another: as,—
  et superiectō pavidae nātārunt aequore dāmae (Hor. Od. i. 2. 11).
- *i*. Frequently unimportant words follow in the train of more emphatic ones with which they are grammatically connected, and so acquire a prominence out of proportion to their importance; as,
  - dictitābat sē hortulōs aliquōs emere velle (Off. iii. 58), gave out that he wanted to buy some gardens. [Here aliquōs is less emphatic than emere, but precedes it on account of the emphasis on hortulōs.]
- j. The copula is generally felt to be of so little importance that it may come in anywhere where it sounds well; but usually under cover of more emphatic words: as,
  - consul ego quaesivi, cum vos mihi essetis in consilio (R. P. iii. 28), as consul I held an investigation in which you attended me in council. falsum est id totum (id. ii. 28), that is all false.
  - k. Many expressions have acquired an invariable order: as,—rēs pūblica; populus Rōmānus; honōris causā; pāce tantī virī.
- Note. Thus, senātus populusque Romānus (S. P. Q. R.) originally stated with emphasis the official bodies, but became fixed so as to be the only permissible form of expression.
- 1. The Romans had a fondness for emphasizing persons, so that a name or a pronoun often stands in an unduly emphatic place: as,
  - [dixit] vēnālīs quidem sē hortos non habēre (Off. iii. 58), [said] that he didn't have any gardens for sale, to be sure.
  - m. Kindred words, as in figūra etymologica, often come together: ita sēnsim sine sēnsū aetās senēscit (C. M. 38), thus gradually, without being perceived, man's life grows old.

#### SPECIAL RULES.

- 345. The following are special rules of arrangement:
- a. 1. Prepositions (except tenus and versus) regularly precede their nouns; 2. but a monosyllabic preposition is often placed between a noun and its adjective or limiting genitive: as,
  - quem ad modum; quam ob rem; māgnō cum metū; omnibus cum cōpiīs; nūlla in rē (cf. § 344. i).
- b. Itaque regularly comes first in its sentence or clause; enim, autem, vērō, quoque, never first, but usually second, sometimes third

if the second word is emphatic; quidem, never first, but after the emphatic word; ne...quidem include the emphatic word or words.

- c. Inquam, inquit are always used parenthetically, following one or more words. So, often, crēdō, opinor, and in poetry precor.
- d. The negative precedes the word it especially affects; but if it belongs to no one word in particular, it generally precedes the verb; if it is especially emphatic, it begins the sentence.
- e. In the arrangement of clauses, the relative clause often comes first in Latin, and, if so, usually contains the antecedent noun: as, —

quos amisimus civis, eos Martis vis perculit (Marc. 17), those citizens whom we have lost, etc.

#### STRUCTURE OF THE PERIOD.

Note.—Latin, unlike modern languages, expresses the relation of words to each other by *inflection* rather than by *position*. Hence its structure not only admits of great variety in the arrangement of words, but is especially favorable to that form of sentence which is called a Period. In a period, the sense is expressed by the sentence as a whole, and is held in suspense till the delivery of the last word.

An English sentence does not often exhibit this form of structure. It was imitated, sometimes with great skill and beauty, by many of the earlier writers of English prose; but its effect is better seen in poetry, in such a passage as the following:—

"High on a throne of royal state, which far
Outshone the wealth of Ormus and of Ind,
Or where the gorgeous East, with richest hand,
Showers on her kings barbaric pearl and gold,
Satan exalted sat." — Paradise Lost, Book II. 1-5.

But in argument or narrative, the best English writers more commonly give short, clear sentences, each distinct from the rest, and saying one thing by itself. In Latin, on the contrary, the story or argument is viewed as a whole; and the logical relation among all its parts is carefully indicated. Hence,—

- 346. In the structure of the Period, the following rules are to be observed:—
- a. In general the main subject or object is put in the main clause, not in a subordinate one (according to § 344): as,—

Hannibal cum recēnsuisset auxilia Gādēs profectus est, when Hannibal had reviewed, etc.

- b. Clauses are usually arranged in the order of prominence in the mind of the speaker; so, usually, cause before result; purpose, manner, and the like, before the act.
- c. In co-ordinate clauses, the copulative conjunctions are frequently omitted (asyndeton). In such cases the connection is made clear by some antithesis indicated by the position of words.
- d. A change of subject, when required, is marked by the introduction of a pronoun, if the new subject has already been mentioned.
  But such change is often purposely avoided by a change in structure,
  the less important being merged in the more important by the aid of participles or of subordinate phrases: as,
  - quem ut barbarī incendium effūgisse vīdērunt, tēlīs ēminus ēmīssīs interfēcērunt, when the barbarians saw that he had escaped, THEY threw darts at HIM and killed HIM.
  - celeriter confecto negotio, in hiberna legiones reverterunt, the matter was soon finished, AND the legions, etc.
- e. So the repetition of a noun, or the substitution of a pronoun for it, is avoided, unless a different case is required: as,
  - dolorem sī non potero frangere occultābo, if I cannot conquer the pain, I will hide IT. [Cf. if I cannot conquer, I will hide the pain.]
- f. The Romans were careful to close a period with an agreeable succession of long and short syllables. Thus,
  - quod scīs nihil prodest, quod nescīs multum obest (Or. 166), what you know is of no use, what you do not know does great harm.

Vowelbelore another vowel or he short.

siphong long

rowel formed by contraction long.

owel though short followed by 2

Consorrants long of lower.

# PART THIRD.—PROSODY (RULES OF VERSE).

ehendus and The

#### 1. QUANTITY.

#### 1. General Rules.

**347.** The following are General Rules of Quantity (cf. § 18):—

a. Vowel. A vowel before another vowel or h is short: as, via, träho.

EXCEPTIONS. In the genitive form ins, i is long, except usually in alterius. Thus, utrius, nullius. It is, however, sometimes made short in verse ( $\S$  83. b).

2. In the genitive and dative singular of the fifth declension, e is long between two vowels: as, diei; but it is short in fidei, rei, spei; a is long before i in the old genitive of the first declension: as, aulāi.

3. In the conjugation of fio, i is long except when followed by er. Thus, fio, fiebam, fiam, but fieri, fierem; so, also, fit.

4. In many Greek words the vowel in Latin represents a long vowel or diphthong, and retains its original long quantity: as, Trões (Τρῶςς), Thalia (Θαλεῖα), hēroās (ἡρωας), aer (ἀρρ).

5. In cheu and dius, and sometimes in Diana and ohe, the first

vowel is long.

b. DIPHTHONG. A Diphthong is long: as, foedus, cui, deinde.

EXCEPTION. The preposition prae in compounds is generally shortened before a vowel: as, prae-ustis (Æn. vii. 524), prae-eunte (id. v. 186).

c. CONTRACTION. A vowel formed by contraction (crasis) is long: as, nil, from nihil; currus, genitive for curruis.

But often two syllables are united by Synæresis without contraction: as when păriĕtibūs is pronounced paryĕtibus.

d. Position. A vowel, though short, followed by two consonants or a double consonant, makes a long syllable: as, adventus, cortex.

But if the two consonants are a mute followed by 1 or r, the syllable may be either long or short (common); as, alacris or alacris; patris or patris.

NOTE 1. — Any vowel before i consonant makes a long syllable (except in bliugis, quadriugis).

NOTE 2. — The compounds of iaciō, though written with one i, commonly retain the long vowel of the prepositions with which they are compounded, as if before a consonant, and lengthen the short as if by Position. (But how the syllables were pronounced is uncertain.) Thus, —

<u>obicis</u> hostī (at the end of a hexameter, Æn. iv. 549). <u>inicit</u> et saltū (at the beginning of a hexameter, Æn. ix. 552). proice tēla manū (at the beginning of a hexameter, Æn. vi. 836).

REMARK. — The y or w sound resulting from synaresis has the effect of a consonant in making position: as, abietis (abyetis), fluviorum (fluvyorum).

Conversely, when the semivowel becomes a vowel, position is lost: as, silvae, for silvae.

# Final Syllables.

- 348. The Quantity of Final Syllables is determined by the following Rules:—
- 1. Monosyllables ending in a vowel are long: as, mē, tū, hī, nē.

  The attached particles -nĕ, -quĕ, -vĕ, -cĕ, -ptĕ, and rĕ- (rĕd-) are short; sē- is long. Thus, sēcēdit, exercitumquĕ rĕdūcit. But reis often long in rēligiō (relligiō), rētulī (rettulī), rēpulī (reppulī).
- 2. Nouns and adjectives of one syllable are long: as, sol, os (oris), bos, par, vis.

EXCEPTIONS. cor (sometimes long), fel, lac, mel, os (ossis), vir, tot, quot.

- 3. Most monosyllabic Particles are short: as, ăn, in, cis, něc. But āc, crās, cūr, ēn, nōn, quin, sin with adverbs in c: as, hīc, hūc, sīc are long.
- 4. Final a in words declined by cases is short, except in the ablative singular of the first declension; in all other words final a is long. Thus, ea stella (nom.), cum ea stella (abl.); frustra, voca (imperat.), postea, triginta.

EXCEPTIONS. ētā, itā, quiā, putā (suppose): and, in late use, trīgintā, etc.

5. Final e is short, as in nube, ducite, saepe. Except —

ullable encine in 2

- In nouns of the fifth declension: as, fidē (also famē), hodiē (hoi diē), quārē (quā rē).
  - 2. In Greek neuters plural of the second declension: as, cētē.
- In adverbs formed from adjectives of the first and second declension, with others of like form: as, altē, miserē, apertē, saepissimē. So, ferē, fermē, probably of same origin.
  - 4. In the imperative singular of the second conjugation: as, vide.

Exceptions. To 3: beně, malě; înterně, superně. To 4: sometimes, cavě, habě, tacě, valě, vidě.

6. Final i is long: as in turri, fili, audi.

But it is common in mihi, tibi, sibi, ibi, ubi; and short in nisi, quasi, cui (when making two syllables), and in Greek vocatives, as Alexi.

7. Final o is common; but long in datives and ablatives, also, almost invariably, in verbs, and in nouns of the third declension.

Exceptions. citŏ, modŏ (adverb), ilicŏ, profectŏ, dummodŏ, immŏ, egŏ, duŏ, octŏ.

- 8. Final u is long. Final y is short.
- 9. Final as, es, os, are long; final is, us, ys, are short; as. nefās, rūpēs, servos (acc.), honos; hostis, amīcus, Tethys.

EXCEPTIONS. as is short in Greek plural accusatives, as lampadas; and in anas.

es is short in nouns of the third declension (lingual) having a short vowel in the stem 1: as, mīlēs (-ĭtis,), obsēs (-ĭdis), — except abiēs, ariēs, pariēs, pēs; in the present of esse (ĕs, adĕs); in the preposition penĕs, and in the plural of Greek nouns, as hērōĕs, lampadĕs.

os is short in compos, impos; in the Greek nominative ending, as barbitos; also, in the old nominative ending of the second declension, as servos (later, servus).

is in plural cases is long, as in bonīs, nobīs, vobīs, omnīs (accusative plural).

is is long in fis, sis, vis (with quivis, etc.), velis, mālis, nōlis; in the second person singular of the fourth conjugation, as audis and sometimes in the forms in -eris (perfect subjunctive).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The quantity of the stem-vowel may be seen in the genitive singular.

us is long (by contraction) in the genitive singular and nominative, accusative, and vocative plural of the fourth declension; and in nouns of the third declension having  $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$  (long) in the stem: as, virtus (- $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ tis), incus (- $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ dis). But, pecus, - $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ dis.

10. Of other final syllables, those ending in a consonant, except -c, are short. Thus, amat, amatur; but, istuc, alec.

Exceptions. doněc, făc, něc, sometimes hic; āēr, aethēr, crātēr liēn, splēn.

## 3. Penultimate Syllables.

**349.** A noun or adjective is said to *increase*, when in any case it has more syllables than in the nominative singular.

A verb is said to increase, when in any part it has more syllables than in the stem. Thus, amā-tis (stem, amā-), tegi-tis (stem, tege-), capi-unt (stem, capi-).

In such words as stellārum, corpŏris, amātis, tegǐtis, the penultimate syllable is called the *increment*. In itinĕrībus, amāvĕrĭtis, the syllables with the quantities marked are called the first, second, and third increments of the noun or verb.

Note. — In such words as Iūppiter, Iŏvis; senex, senis, the syllables whose vowel-quantity is marked are called increments. These forms must be referred to lost nominatives from the same stems. So itineribus has really only two increments as from †itinus.

350. In increments of Nouns and Adjectives, a and o are generally long; (e, i, u, y, generally short: as,—

aetās, aetātis; honor, honōris; servos, servōrum; opus, operis; carmen, carminis; murmur, murmuris; pecus, pecudis; chlamys, chlamydis. Exceptions are—

a: shortin baccar (-ăris), hēpar (-ătis), iubar (-ăris), lār (-lăris), mās (măris), nectar (-ăris), pār (păris), sāl (sălis), vas (vădis), daps (dăpis), fax (făcis), anthrax (-ăcis).

o: short in neuters of the third declension (except ōs, ōris): as, corpus (-ŏris); also in arbor (-ŏris), scrobs (scrŏbis), ops (ŏpis), bōs (bŏvis), memor (-ŏris), Iūppiter (Iŏvis), Hector (-ŏris), and compounds of -pūs (as, tripūs, -pŏdis).

- e: long in increments of fifth declension: as, diēs, diēi; also in hērēs (-ēdis), lēx (lēgis), locuplēs (-ētis), mercēs (-ēdis), plēbs (plēbis), quiēs (-ētis), rēx (rēgis), vēr (vēris), crātēr (-ēris). But see § 347. 2.
- i: long in most nouns and adjectives in ix: as, fēlīcis, rādīcis (except filix, nix, strix); also in dīs (dītis), glīs (glīris), līs (lītis), vīs (vīrēs), Quirītēs, Samnītēs.

u: long in forms from nouns in -us: as, palūs, palūdis; tellūs, tellūris; virtūs, virtūtis; also in lūx, lūcis; [frūx], frūgis; fūr, fūris.

- **351.** In the increment of Verbs the characteristic vowels are as follows:—
  - 1. In the first conjugation a: as, amare, amatur.
  - 2. In the second conjugation ē: as, monēre, monētur.
  - 3. In the third conjugation e, i: as, tegere, tegitur.
  - 4. In the fourth conjugation i: as, audire, auditur.

EXCEPTION. do and its compounds have a: as, dare, circumdabat.

- a. In other verbal increments (not stem-vowels) -
- a is always long: as, moneāris, tegāmus.
- e is long: as, tegēbam, audiēbar.

Note. — But e is short before -ram, -rim, -ro; in the future personal endings -beris, -bere; and sometimes in the perfect -erunt (as, steteruntque comae, Æn. ii. 774).

i is long in forms which follow the analogy of the fourth conjugation: as, petīvī, lacessītus (in others, short: as, monĭtus); also in the subjunctive present of esse and velle (sīmus, velīmus); and (rarely) in the endings -rimus, -ritis. It is short in the future forms amābitis, etc.

- o is found only in imperatives, and is long: as, monētōte, etc. u is short in sumus, volumus, quaesumus; in the Supine and its derivatives it is long: as, soluturus.
- b. Perfects and Supines of two syllables lengthen the first syllable: as, iūvi, iūtum (iŭvō), vidī, visum (videō); fūgī (fŭgiō).

Exceptions. bībī, dēdī, fīdī, scīdī, stētī, stītī, tūlī; — cītum, dātum, ītum, lītum, quītum, rātum, rūtum, sātum, sītum, stātum. In some compounds of stō, stātum is found long, as prostātum.

- c. In reduplicated perfects the vowel of the reduplication is short; the following syllable is, also, usually short: as, cĕcĭdī (cădō), dĭdĭcī (discō), pŭpŭgī (pungō), cŭcurrī (currō), tĕtendī (tendō), mŏmordī (mordeō). But, cĕcīdī from caedō, pepēdī from pēdō.
- **352.** The following terminations are generally preceded by a long vowel:
  - 1. -brum, -crum, -trum: as, lavacrum, delubrum, veratrum.
  - 2. -na, -ne, -nis: as, carīna, māne, inānis.
  - 3. -re, -ris, -ta, -tis: as, altare, sălūtaris, moneta, immītis.
- **353.** The following terminations are preceded by a short vowel:—
- 1. -cus, -dus (with some exceptions), -lus: as, rūsticus, călidus, glādiolus.
- 2. -tās (in nouns), -ter and -tus (in adverbs): as, cīvītās, fortīter, pēnītus.
- -culus, -cellus, -lentus, -tūdō: as, fasciculus, ocellus, lūculentus, māgnitudō.
  - 354. Rules for the quantity of Derivatives are —
- a. Forms from the same STEM regularly have the same quantity: as, ămō, ămāvistī; gĕnus, gĕneris.
- b. Compounds retain the quantity of the words which compose them: as, oc-cidō (cadō), oc-cidō (caedō), in-icus (aecus).

# 2. RHYTHM.

#### r. Measures.

**355.** Rhythm consists in the recurrence in musical sound of accent at regular intervals. These intervals are called MEASURES OF FEET.

The most natural measures of musical time consist of either two or three equal parts. But the ancients also distinguished measures of five parts.

REMARK. — In poetry these intervals are taken up by enunciated syllables which in Latin have a definite length or quantity.

- a. The unit of length in Prosody is one short syllable. This is called a MORA. It is represented by the sign o, or may be represented in musical notation by the quaver  $\binom{a}{b}$ .
- b. A long syllable is regularly equal to two moræ, and is represented by the sign \_, or may be represented by the crotchet (\*).
- **356.** The measures most frequently employed in Latin verse, together with their musical notation, are the following:
  - a. TRIPLE OR UNEQUAL MEASURES  $(\frac{3}{8})$ .
  - I. TROCHEE (∠ ∪ = ): as, rēgis.
  - 2. IAMBUS (∪ ∠ = ): as, dŭcēs.
  - 3. Tribrach ( $\checkmark \circ \circ = \bullet \bullet$ ): as, hominis.
    - b. Double or Equal Measures (2).
  - DACTYL (∠ ∪ ∪ = f (): as, cônsŭlis.
  - 2. Anapæst (  $\circ$   $\circ$   $\checkmark$  =  $\circ$   $\circ$ ): as, mönitös.
  - 3. Spondee (\_\_ = p): as, rēgēs.

For the more complex measures, see larger grammar.

**357.** In most cases measures of the same time may be substituted for each other, a long syllable taking the place of two short ones, or two short ones the place of one long one. Thus, a Spondee (---) may take the place of a Dactyl (---).

#### 2. The Musical Accent.

- **358.** That part of the measure which receives the *stress* of voice (the musical accent) is called the Thesis; the unaccented part is called the Arsis.
- a. The stress of voice laid upon the Thesis is called the ICTUS (beat). It is marked thus:  $\angle \cup \cup$ .

b. The ending of a word within a measure is called CÆSŪRA. When this coincides with a rhetorical pause, it is called the Cæsura of the verse, and is of main importance as affecting the melody or rhythm

#### 3. VERSIFICATION.

#### THE VERSE.

- **359.** A single line of poetry that is, a series of measures (feet) set in a known order is called a Verse.
- a. A verse lacking a syllable at the end is called CATALECTIC, that is, having a pause to fill the measure; when the end syllable is not lacking, the verse is called ACATALECTIC, and has no such pause.
- b. To divide the verse into its appropriate measures, according to the rules of quantity and versification, is called *scanning* or *scansion* (scānsiō, from scandō, a *climbing* or advance by steps).

REMARK. — In *reading* verse rhythmically, care should be taken to preserve the measure or time of the syllables, but at the same time not to destroy or confuse the words themselves, as is often done in *scanning*.

c. In scanning, a vowel or diphthong at the end of a word (unless an interjection) is partially suppressed when the next word begins with a vowel or with h. This is called ELISION.

In reading it is usual entirely to suppress elided syllables. Strictly, however, they should be sounded lightly.

d. A final -m, with the preceding vowel, is suppressed in like manner when the next word begins with a vowel or h: this is called ECTHLIPSIS: as,

monstrum horrendum, informe, ingens, cui dimen ademptum.
— 'Æn. iii. 658.

e. Elision is sometimes omitted when a word ending in a vowel has a special emphasis, or is succeeded by a pause. This omission is called Hiatus. In such cases the final vowel is sometimes shortened.

f. A final syllable, regularly short, is sometimes lengthened before a pause: it is then said to be long by Diastolē: as, —

nostrorum obruimur, — oriturque miserrima caedes.

g. The last syllable of a verse may be either long or short.

#### FORMS OF VERSE.

360. A verse receives its name from its dominant or fundamental measure; as, Dactylic, Iambic, Trochaic, Anapæstic; and from the number of measures (single or double) which it contains: as, Hexameter, Tetrameter, Trimeter, Dimeter.

REMARK. — Trochaic, Iambic, and Anapæstic verses are measured not by single feet, but by pairs (dipodia), so that six Iambi make a Trimeter.

**361.** A Stanza, or Strophe, consists of a definite number of verses ranged in a fixed order.

#### 1. Dactylic Hexameter.

**362.** The Dactylic Hexameter, or *Heroic Verse*, consists theoretically of six dactyls. It may be represented thus:—

or in musical notation as follows :-

# Irefrediterirerire 1

a. For any one of the feet, except the fifth, a spondee may be substituted. The last foot is a trochee standing for a dactyl, but the final syllable is not measured, and the foot is called a spondee.

Rarely a spondee is found in the fifth place; the verse is then called *spondaic*. Thus in Ecl. iv. 49 the verse ends with incrementum.

b. The hexameter has always one principal cæsura — sometimes two — almost always accompanied by a pause in the sense.

The principal cæsura is usually after the thesis (masculine), less commonly in the arsis (feminine) of the third foot, dividing the verse into two parts.

It may also be after the thesis (less commonly in the arsis) of the fourth foot. In this case there is often another cæsura in the second foot, so that the verse is divided into three parts instead of two: as,—

partě fě | rōx || ār | dēnsque ŏcŭ | līs || et | sībĭlă | collă. — Æn. v. 277.

REMARK. — Often the only indication of the principal among a number of cæsuras is the break in the sense.

c. The introductory verses of the Æneid, divided according to the foregoing rules, will appear as follows. The principal cæsura in each verse is marked by double lines:—

Armă vi | rumque că | nō || Trō | iae quī | prīmus āb | ōrīs

Îtăli | am fā | tō profu | gus || Lā | vīnzāque | vēnīt

lītoră, | multum ille | et ter | rīs || iac | tātus et | altō

vī supe | rūm sae | vae || memo | rem Iū | nonīs ob | īrām;

multă quo | que et bel | lō pas | sus || dum | conderet | urbem,

īnfer | retque de | ōs Lātī | ō, || genus | unde Lā | tīnum,

Albā | nīque pā | trēs, || at | que altae | moenīa | Rōmae.

The feminine cæsura is seen in the following: -

Dīs gĕnǐ | tī pŏtŭ | ērĕ: | tĕ | nent mĕdǐ | à omnĭă | silvae.

- Æn. vi. 131.

#### 2. Elegiac Stanza.

**363.** The Elegiac Stanza consists of two lines, — an hexameter followed by a pentameter.<sup>1</sup>

The Pentameter verse is the same as the hexameter, except that it omits the last half of the third foot and of the sixth foot. Thus,—

- a. The Pentameter verse is thus to be scanned as two half-verses, the second of which always consists of two dactyls followed by a single syllable.
- b. The Pentameter has no Cæsura; but the first half-verse must always end with a word, followed by a pause to complete the measure.<sup>2</sup>
- c. The following verses will illustrate the forms of the Elegiac Stanza:—
- <sup>1</sup> Called *pentameter* by the old grammarians, who divided it, formally, into five feet (two dactyls or spondees, a spondee, and two anapæsts), as follows:—

<sup>2</sup> The time of this pause, however, may be filled by the *protraction* of the preceding syllable : thus, —

\_UU|\_UU|\_I UU|\_X

cum sŭbît | illî | us trīs | tissǐmă | noctĭs ĭ | māgō
quā mĩhǐ | suprē | mum ⊼ || tempūs ĭn | urbĕ fǔ | ǐt,
cum rĕpĕ | tō noc | tem quā | tot mĩhǐ | cāră rĕ | līquī,
lābǐtǔr | ex ŏcǔ | līs ⊼ || nunc quŏquĕ | guttă mĕ | īs.
iam prŏpĕ | lūx ădĕ | rat quā | mē dis | cēdĕrĕ | Caesar
fīnĭbǔs | extrē | mae ⊼ || iūssĕrăt | Ausŏnĭ | ae.
— OVID, Trist. i. 3.

364-375. For these sections showing other forms of verse, and for the metres of Horace, see the larger grammar.

#### MISCELLANEOUS.

#### I. RECKONING OF TIME.

Note.—The Roman Year was designated, in earlier times, by the names of the Consuls; but was afterwards reckoned from the building of the City (ab urbe conditā, annō urbis conditae), the date of which was assigned by Varro to a period corresponding with B.C. 753. In order, therefore, to reduce Roman dates to those of the Christian era, the year of the city is to be subtracted from 754: e.g. A.U.C. 691 = B.C. 63.

Before Cæsar's reform of the Calendar (B.C. 46), the Roman year consisted of 355 days; March, May, Quīntīlis (July), and October having each 31 days; February having 28, and each of the remainder 29. The "Julian year," by Cæsar's reformed Calendar, had 365 days, divided into months as at present. Every fourth year the 24th of February (vi. kal. Mārt.) was counted twice, giving 29 days to that month: hence the year was called Bissextīlis. The month Quīntīlis received the name Iūlius (July), in honor of Julius Cæsar; and Sextīlis was called Augustus (August), in honor of his successor. The Julian year (see below) remained unchanged till the adoption of the Gregorian Calendar.

- **376.** Dates, according to the Roman Calendar, are reckoned as follows:
  - a. The first day of the month was called Kalendae (Calends).
- b. On the fifteenth day of March, May, July, and October, but the thirteenth of the others, were the Idus (Ides), the day of Full Moon.
- c. On the seventh day of March, May, July, and October, but the fifth of the other months, were the Nonae (Nones or ninths).
- d. From the three points thus determined, the days of the month were reckoned backwards, as so many days before the, Nones, the Ides, or the Calends. The point of departure was, by Roman custom, counted in the reckoning, the second day being three days before, etc.:—

Hence if the given date be Calends, add two to the number of days in the month preceding, — if Nones or Ides, add one to that of the day on which they fall, — and from this sum subtract the given date: thus,—

viii. Kal. Feb. (33-8) = Jan. 25. iv. Non. Mār. (8-4) = Mar. 4. iv. Id. Sept. (14-4) = Sept. 10.

e. The days of the Roman month by the Julian Calendar, as thus ascertained, are given in the following Table:—

January.	February.	March.	April.
I. KAL. IAN.	KAL. FEB.	KAL. MARTIAE	KAL. APRĪLĒS
2. IV. Non. Ian.	IV. Non. Feb.	vi. Non. Mart.	IV. Non. Apr.
3. III. " "	III. " "	v. "	III. " "
4. prīd. " "	prīd. "	IV. " "	prid. " "
5. Non. Ian.	Non. Feb.	III. " "	Non. Apriles
6. VIII. Īd. Iān.	vIII. Id. Feb.	prīd. "	VIII. Id. Apr.
7. VII. " "	VII. " "	Non Martiae	VII. 46 46
8. vi. " "	VI. " "	VIII. Īd. Mārt.	VI. " "
9. v. " "	V. " "	AII' « «	V
10. IV. " "	IV. " "	VI. " "	IV. " "
11. III. " "	III. " "	v. " "	III. " "
12. prīd. " "	prid. " "	IV. · · · · · · ·	prīd. " "
13. ĪDŪS IĀN.	IDUS FEB.	III. " "	ĪDŪS APRĪLĒS.
	. xvi. Kal. Mārtiās	prīd. " "	XVIII. Kal. Māiās.
15. XVIII. " "	Av.	IDUS MARTIAE	WAII.
10. 2711.	Alv.	xvII. Kal. Aprīlīs.	
1/. 2011.	AIII.	AVI.	WA.
10. Av.	AII.	A.V.	Alv.
19. AIV.	AI.	ALV.	Alli
20. XIII. " "	A.	XIII. " "	XII. " "
22. XI. " "	VIII. "	XI. " "	X. " "
23. X. " "	VIII. " "	X. " "	IX. " "
24. IX. " "	VI. " "	IX. " "	VIII. " "
25. VIII. " "	v. " "	VIII. " "	VII. " "
26. VII. " "	IV. " "	VII. " "	VI. " "
27. VI. " "	III. " "	VI. " "	V. 16 16
28. v. " "	prīd. " "	V. " "	IV. 46 66
29. IV. " "	Sprid Kal Märt.	IV. " "	III. " "
30. 111. " "	in leap-year, the	III. " "	prīd. " "
31. prīd. " "	vi. Kal. (24th) being		(So June, Sept.,
(So. Aug., Dec.)	counted twice.]	(So May, July, Oct.)	, -
	,	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	

Note. — Observe that a date before the Julian Reform (B.C. 46) would be found not by the above table, but by taking the earlier reckoning of the number of days in the month.

#### II. MEASURES OF VALUE, ETC.

377. The money of the Romans was in early times wholly of copper. The unit was the ās, nominally a pound in weight, but actually somewhat less. It was divided into twelve unciae (ounces).

In the third century B.C. the  $\bar{a}s$  was gradually reduced to one-half of its original value. In the same century silver coins were introduced, —the  $D\bar{e}n\bar{a}rius = 10$  asses; and the  $S\bar{e}stertius = 2\frac{1}{3}$  asses.

378. The Sestertius was probably introduced at a time when the **ās** had been so far reduced that the value of the new coin (2½ asses) was equivalent to the original value of the **ās**. Hence, the Sestertius (usually abbreviated to IIS or HS) came to be used as the unit of value, and nummus, coin, often means simply sēstertius. As the reduction of the standard went on, the sestertius became equivalent to 4 asses. Gold was introduced later, the aureus being equal to 100 sesterces. The value of these coins is seen in the following table:—

 $2\frac{1}{2}$  asses = 1 sēstertius or nummus (HS), value nearly 5 cents. 10 asses or 4 sēstertiī = 1 dēnārius . . " " 20 cents.

1000 sēstertiī = 1 sēstertium . . . . " " \$50.00.

Note. — The word sestertius is a shortened form of semis-tertius, the third one, a half. The abbreviation IIS or HS = duo et semis,  $2\frac{1}{2}$ , two and a half.

379. The Sestertium (probably originally the genitive plural of sestertius) was a sum of money, not a coin; the word is inflected regularly as a neuter noun: thus, tria sestertia = \$150.00.

When sēstertium was combined with a numeral adverb, centēna mīlia (hundreds of thousands) was originally understood: thus deciēns sēstertium (deciēns HS) = \$50,000. But later sēstertium was inflected as a neuter singular, as deciēns sēstertiō, etc..

In the statement of large sums sēstertium is often omitted: thus sexāgiēns (Rosc. Am. 2) signifies, sexāgiēns [centēna mīlia] sēstertium (6,000,000 sesterces) = \$300,000 (nearly).

380. In the statement of sums of money in cipher, a line above the number indicates thousands; lines above and at the sides also, hundred-thousands. Thus Hs. DC. = 600 sēstertii; Hs. DC. = 600,000 sēstertii, or 600 sēstertii; Hs. DC = 60,000,000 sēstertii.

9. (3/4), dodrāns.

# 381. The Roman Measures of Length are the following:

- 12 inches (unciae) = 1 Roman Foot (pes: 11.65 English inches).
- $1\frac{1}{2}$  Feet = I Cubit (cubitum).  $-2\frac{1}{2}$  Feet = I Degree or Step (gradus).
  - 5 Feet = I Pace (passus). 1000 Paces (mille passuum) = I Mile.

The Roman mile was equal to 4850 English feet.

The *Iūgerum*, or unit of measure of land, was an area of 240 (Roman) feet long and 120 broad; a little less than  $\frac{2}{3}$  of an English acre.

# 382. The Measures of Weight are-

12 unciae (ounces) = 1 Pound (libra, about \( \frac{3}{4} \) lb. avoirdupois).

# Fractional parts (weight or coin) are -

- 1.  $(\frac{1}{12})$ , uncia. 5.  $(\frac{5}{12})$ , quincunx.
- 2.  $(\frac{1}{8})$ , sextāns. 6.  $(\frac{1}{2})$ , sēmissis. 10.  $(\frac{5}{8})$ , dextāns. 3.  $(\frac{1}{1})$ , quadrāns. 7.  $(\frac{7}{12})$ , septunx. 11.  $(\frac{1}{12})$ , deunx.
- 4. (1/8), triens. 8. (2/8), bessis. 12. as.

The Talent (talentum) was a Greek weight (τάλαντον) = 60 librae.

# 383. The Measures of Capacity are —

12 cyathi = 1 sextārius (nearly a pint).

16 sextāriī = 1 modius (peck).

6 sextāriī = 1 congius (3 quarts, liquid measure).

8 congii=1 amphora (6 gallons).

# **384.** The following are some of the commonest abbreviations found in Latin inscriptions and sometimes in editions of the classic authors.

A., absolvo, antiquo.

A. U., anno urbis.

A. U. C., ab urbe conditā.

C., condemno, comitialis.

cos., consul (consule).

coss., consules (consulibus).

D., dīvus.

D. D., dono dedit.

D. D. D., dat, dicat, dedicat.

des., designātus.

D. M., diī mānēs.
eq. Rom., eques Rōmānus.

F., fīlius, fāstus.

Ictus., iūrisconsultus.

Id., īdūs.

imp., imperator.

I. O. M., Iovī optimā māximā.

K., Kal., Kalendae.

N., nepos, nefāstus.

N. L., non liquet.

P. C., patres conscripti.

pl., plēbis.

pont. max., pontifex māximus.

pop., populus.

P. R., populus Romānus.

pr., praetor.

proc., proconsul.

Q. B. F. F. Q. S., quod bonum fēlīx

faustumque sit.

Quir., Quirites.

resp., rēspūblica, respondet.

S., salūtem, sacrum, senātus.

S. C., senātūs consultum.

S. D. P., salūtem dīcit plūrimam.

S. P. Q. R., Senātus Populusque Rōmānus.

S. V. B. E. E. V., sī valēs bene est, ego valeō.

pl. tr., tribūnus plēbis.

U. (U. R.), uti rogās.

# **GLOSSARY**

OF TERMS USED IN GRAMMAR, RHETORIC, AND PROSODY.

-----

NOTE. — Many of these terms are pedantic names given by early grammarians to forms of speech used naturally by writers who were not conscious that they were using figures at all — as, indeed, they were not. Thus, when one says, "It gave me no little pleasure," he is unconsciously using Litotes; when he says, "John went up the street, James down," Antithesis; when he says, "High as the sky," Hyperbole. Many were given under a mistaken notion of the nature of the usage referred to. Thus med and ted (§ 98. c) were supposed to owe their d to Paragoge, sümpsī its p to Epenthesis. Such a sentence as "See my coat, how well it fits!" was supposed to be an irregularity to be accounted for by Prolepsis.

Many of these, however, are convenient designations for phenomena which often occur; and most of them have a historic interest, of one kind or another.

## 385. I. GRAMMATICAL TERMS.

Anacoluthon: a change of construction in the same sentence, leaving the first part broken or unfinished.

Anastrophe: inversion of the usual order of words.

Apodosis: the conclusion of a conditional sentence (see Protasis).

Archaism: an adoption of old or obsolete forms.

Asyndeton: omission of conjunctions (§ 208. b).

Barbarism: adoption of foreign or unauthorized forms.

Brachylogy: brevity of expression.

Crasis: contraction of two vowels into one (§ 10. c).

Ellipsis: omission of a word or words necessary to complete the sense (§ 177. note).

Enallage: substitution of one word or form for another.

Epenthesis: insertion of a letter or syllable (§ 11. c).

Hellenism: use of Greek forms of constructions.

Hendiadys (ἐν διὰ δυοῖν): the use of two nouns, with a conjunction, instead of a single modified noun.

Hypallage: interchange of constructions.

Hysteron proteron: a reversing of the natural order of ideas.

Applied to cases where the natural sequence of events is violated in language because the later event is of more importance than the earlier and so comes first to the mind. This was supposed to be an artificial embellishment in Greek, and so was imitated in Latin. It is still found in artless narrative; cf. "Bred and Born in a Brier Bush" (Uncle Remus).

Metathesis: transposition of letters in a word (§ 11. d).

Paragoge: addition of a letter or letters to the end of a word.

Parenthesis: insertion of a phrase interrupting the construction.

Periphrasis: a roundabout way of expression (circumlocution).

Pleonasm: the use of needless words.

Polysyndeton: the use of an unnecessary number of copulative conjunctions.

Prolepsis: the use of a word in the clause preceding the one where it would naturally appear (anticipation).

Protasis: a clause introduced by a conditional expression (if, when, whoever), leading to a conclusion called the Apodosis (§ 304).

Syncope: omission of a letter or syllable from the middle of a word. Synesis (constructio ad sensum): agreement of words according to the sense, and not the grammatical form (§ 182).

Tmesis: the separation of two parts of a compound word by other words (cutting).

Zeugma: the use of a verb with two different words, to only one of which it strictly applies (yoking).

## 386. II. RHETORICAL FIGURES.

Allegory: a narrative in which abstract ideas figure as circumstances, events, or persons, in order to enforce some moral truth.

Alliteration: the use of several words that begin with the same sound.

Analogy: argument from resemblances.

Canaphora: the repetition of a word at the beginning of successive clauses ( $\S$  344. f).

Antithesis: opposition, or contrast of parts (for emphasis, § 344). (Antonomasia: use of a proper for a common noun, or the reverse.

Aposiopesis: an abrupt pause for rhetorical effect.

Catachresis: a harsh metaphor (abūsiō, misuse of words).

Chiasmus: a reversing of the order of words in corresponding pairs.

Climax: a gradual increase of emphasis, or enlargement of meaning.

Euphemism: the mild expression of a painful or repulsive idea.

Euphony: the choice of words for their agreeable sound.

Hyperbaton: violation of the usual order of words.

Hyperbole: exaggeration for rhetorical effect.

Irony: the use of words which naturally convey a sense contrary to what is meant.

Litotes: the affirming of a thing by denying its contrary (§ 209. c).

Metaphor: the figurative use of words, indicating an object by some resemblance.

Metonymy: the use of the name of one thing to indicate some kindred thing.

Onomatopæia: a fitting of sound to sense in the use of words.

Oxymoron: the use of contradictory words in the same phrase.

Paronomasia: the use of words of like sound.

Prosopopæia: personification.

Synchysis: the interlocked order (§ 344. h).

Synecdoche: the use of the name of a part for the whole or the reverse.

## 387. III. TERMS OF PROSODY.

Acatalectic: complete, as a verse or a series of feet (§ 359. a).

Anaclasis: breaking a rhythm by substituting different measures.

Anacrusis: the unaccented syllable or syllables preceding a verse.

Antistrophe: a series of verses corresponding to one which has gone before (cf. strophe).

Arsis: the unaccented part of a foot (§ 358).

Basis: a single foot preceding the regular movement of a verse.

Cæsura: the ending of a word within a metrical foot (§ 358. b).

Catalexis: loss of a final syllable (or syllables) making the series catalectic (incomplete, § 359. a).

Contraction: the use of one long syllable for two short (§ 357).

Correption: shortening of a long syllable for metrical reasons.

Diaresis: the coincidence of the end of a foot with the end of a word (§ 358.  $\epsilon$ ).

Dialysis: the use of i (consonant) and v as vowels (silüa = silva).

Diastole: the lengthening of a short syllable by emphasis (§ 359f).

Dimeter: consisting of two like measures.

Dipody: consisting of two like feet.

Distich: a system or series of two verses.

Ecthlipsis: the suppression of a final syllable in -m before a word beginning with a vowel (§ 359. d).

Elision: the cutting off of a final before a following initial vowel.

Heptameter: consisting of seven feet.

Hexameter: consisting of six measures.

Hexapody: consisting of six feet.

Hiatus: the meeting of two vowels without contraction or elision.

Ictus: the metrical accent (§ 358. a).

Irrational: not conforming strictly to the unit of time (§ 356. note). Logaædic: varying in rhythm, making the effect resemble prose.

Monometer: consisting of a single measure.

Mora: the unit of time = one short syllable (§ 355. a).

Pentameter: consisting of five measures.

Pentapody: consisting of five feet.

Penthemimeris: consisting of five half-feet.

Protraction: extension of a syllable beyond its normal length.

Resolution: the use of two short syllables for one long (§ 357).

Strophe: a series of verses making a recognized metrical whole (stanza), which may be indefinitely repeated.

Synæresis: i (vowel) and u becoming consonants before a vowel.

Synalæpha: the same as elision (§ 359. c. Rem.).

Synapheia: elision between two verses (§ 359. c. Rem.).

Synizesis: the combining of two vowels in one syllable (§ 347. c).

Syncope: loss of a short vowel.

Systole: shortening of a syllable regularly long.

Tetrameter: consisting of four measures.

Tetrapody: consisting of four feet.

Tetrastich: a system of four verses.

Thesis: the accented part of a foot (§ 358).

Trimeter: consisting of three measures.

Tripody: consisting of three feet.

Tristich: a system of three verses.

BBREVLATIONS

USED IN CITING AUTHORS AND THEIR WORKS.

#### -- 1 36 3 ···

Cæsar:

B. C., Bellum Civile. B. G., Bellum Gallicum.

B. Afr., Bellum Africanum.

Catull., Catullus. Cic., Cicero:

> Ac., Acad., Academica.

Arch., pro Archia. Att., ad Atticum.

.Cæc., pro Caecina. Cæl., pro M. Caelio.

Cat., in Catilinam. Clu., pro Cluentio.

C. M., Cato Major. Deiot., pro Deiotaro.

De Or., de Oratore.

Div., de Divinatione. Cæcil., Divinatio in

Caecilium. Fam., ad Familiares.

Fat., de Fato. Fin., de Finibus.

Flac., pro Flacco.

Font., pro M. Fonteio.

Ad Her. [ad Herennium].

Inv., de Inventione. Læl., Laelius.

Legg., de Legibus.

Agr., de Lege Agraria.

Lig., pro Ligario. Manil., pro Lege Ma-

nilia.

Marc., pro Marcello.

Mil., pro Milone.

Mur., pro Murena.

N. D., de Natura Deo-

rum. Off., de Officiis.

Or., Orator.

Par., Paradoxa.

Part. Or., de Partitione.

Phil., Philippicae.

Planc., pro Plancio.

Pis., in Pisonem.

Quinct., pro Quinctio. O. Fr., ad Q. Fratrem.

Rabir., pro Rabirio.

Rep., de Republica.

Rosc. Am., pro Roscio Amerino.

Rosc. Com., pro Roscio

Comoedo.

Sest., pro Sestio. Sulla, pro Sulla.

Top., Topica.

Tusc., Tusculanae Dis-

putationes. Univ., de Universo.

Vatin., in Vatinium. Verr., in Verrem.

Hor., Horace:

A. P., de Arte Poetica.

Ep., Epistulae. Epod., Epodes.

Od., Odes.

Sat., Satires.

Juv., Juvenal.

Liv., Livy.

Lucr., Lucretius.

Mart., Martial.

Nep., Nepos. Ov., Ovid:

F., Fasti.

M., Metamorphoses. ex P., Epistulae ex

Ponto.

Trist., Tristia.

Pers., Persius.

Plaut., Plautus.

Plin., Pliny, senior:

H. N., Historia Naturalis.

Plin., Pliny, junior:

Ep., Epistulae.

Prop., Propertius.

Q. C., Q. Curtius.

Quint., Quintilian.

Sall., Sallust:

Cat., Catilina.

Jug., Jugurtha.

Sen., Seneca:

Ep., Epistulae.

Q. N., Quaestiones Naturales.

Sil. It., Silius Italicus.

Suet., Suetonius.

Tac., Tacitus:

Agr., Agricola. A., Ann., Annales.

H., Historiae.

Ter., Terence.

Virg., Virgil:

Æn., Æneid.

E., Eclogae.

G., Georgica.

# INDEX OF WORDS AND SUBJECTS.

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Note.—The numerical references are to sections, with a few exceptions in which the page (p.) is referred to. The letters refer to subsections. The letter n. signifies Note; n., Remark. Abl. = ablative; acc. = accusative; adj. = adjective; adv. = adverb; apod. = apodosis; app. = appositive; comp. = comparison or compound; compar. = comparative; constr. = construction; conj. = conjugation or conjunction; dat. = dative; gen. = genitive; gend. = gender; ind. disc. = indirect discourse; loc. = locative; prep. = preposition; subj. = subject or subjunctive; vb. = verb; w. = with. (Other abbreviations present no difficulty.)

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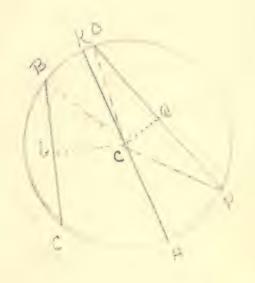
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